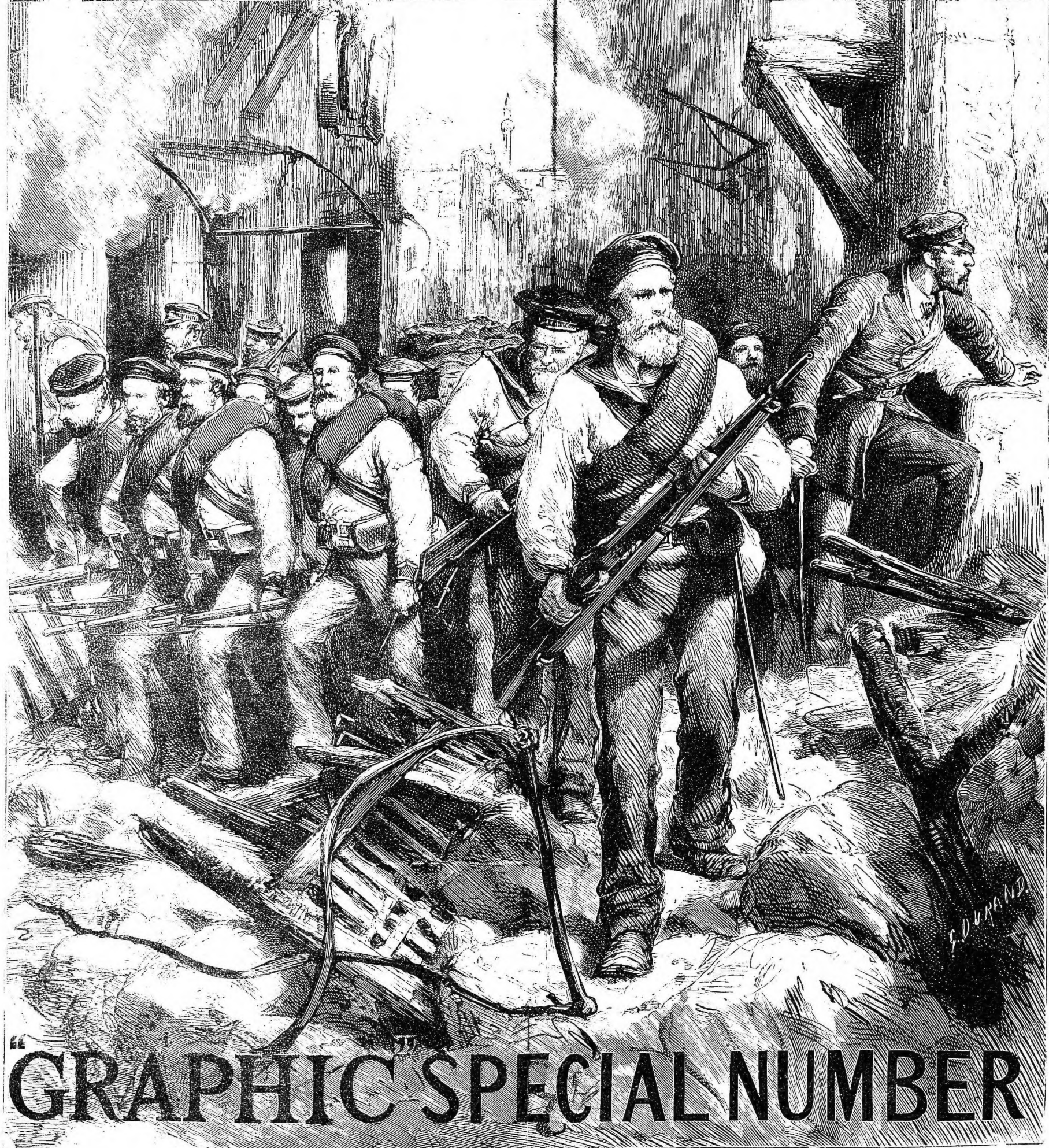


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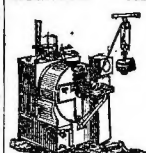


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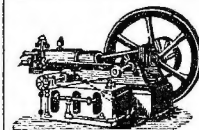
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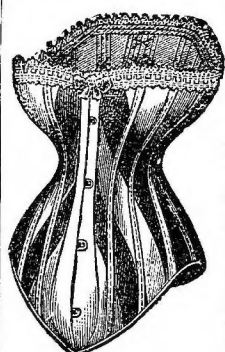
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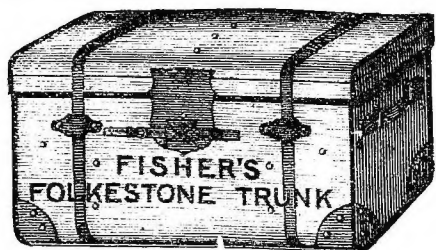
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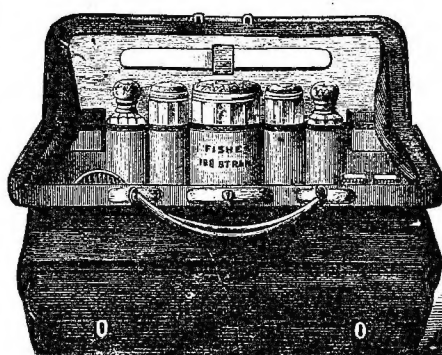
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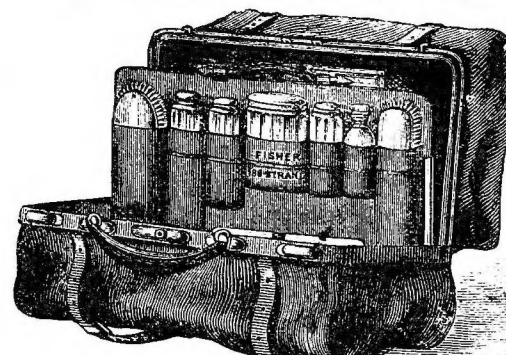
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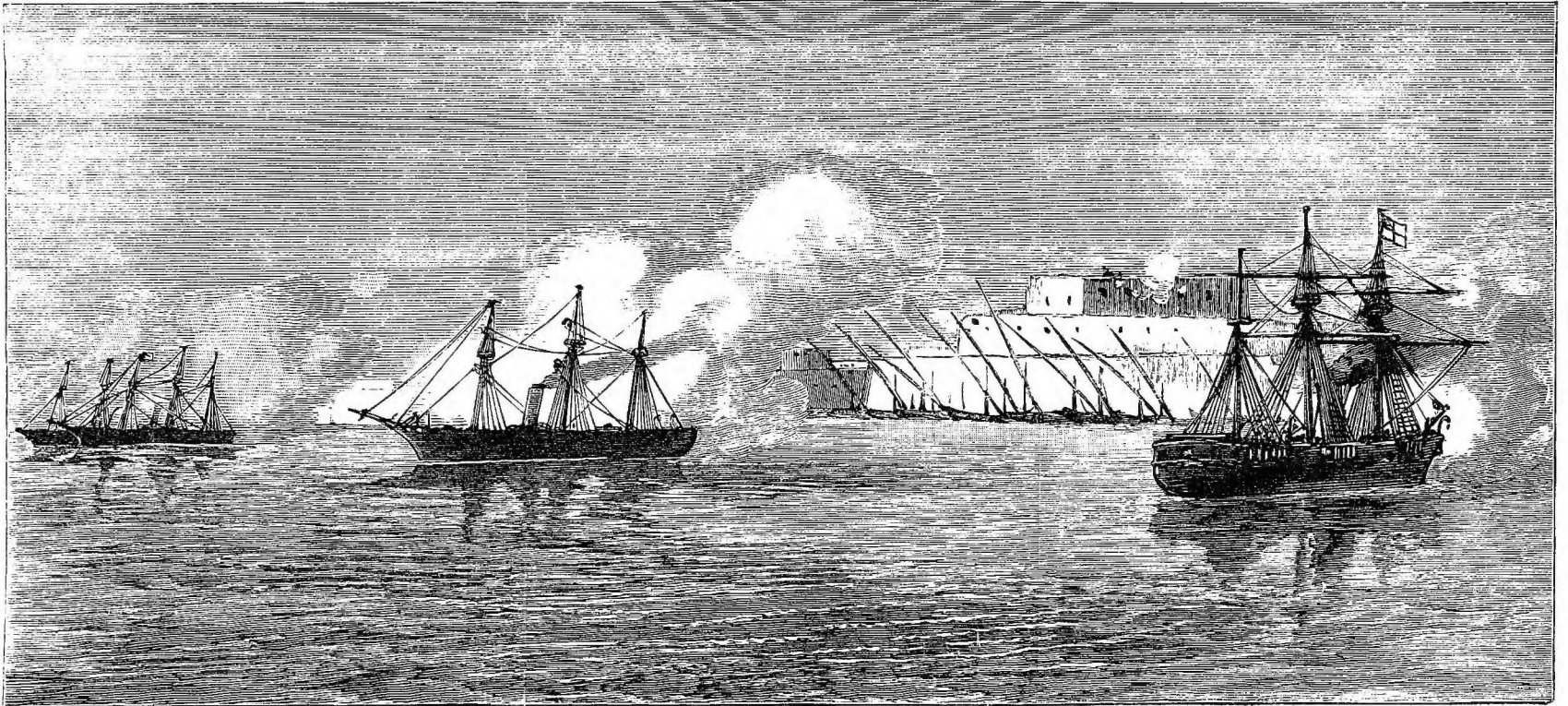
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The Bombardment of Alexandria

Ancient Alexandria

ALEXANDRIA'S BIRTH

WHEN Alexander the Great, after the capture of Gaza, bent his march towards Egypt he was received with no opposition in the ancient land of the Pharaohs. The Egyptians hated the Persians, who had trampled on their national rites and customs, whereas the policy of the Macedonian conqueror was to treat respectfully the shrines and gods of the lands which he subdued. Partly impelled by curiosity, and partly to pay respect to one of the most celebrated shrines of the day, Alexander journeyed to the Oasis of Ammon, in the Libyan desert, and visited there the oracle of Jupiter Ammon. We may take it that the conqueror was not displeased when the subservient oracle declared him to be the son of great Jove himself. His mother Olympias, indeed, used laughingly to profess to dread the possible embroilments with Jupiter's wife which might result from her son's proclamations issued in the name of "King Alexander, son of Jupiter Ammon." There was, however, no great man of antiquity whose birth was not attended by some miraculous portent, and as Arrianus quaintly observes: "I cannot condemn him for endeavouring to draw his subjects into the belief of his divine origin, nor can I be induced to think it any very great crime, for it is very reasonable to imagine that he intended no more by it than merely to procure the greater authority among his soldiers." Whatever may have been Alexander's private opinion, there is no doubt that the utterance of the famous oracle was by no means unwelcome. It harmonised well with the dreams of a universal Greek dominion which then possessed him, for on descending the Nile, and navigating the western branch of the Delta, he had reached a spot which seemed admirably suited for the foundation of a great city.

ITS SITE

THE spot at which Alexander arrived was some twelve miles west of the Canopic branch of the Nile. The coast was flat, and took the form of a large bay with two jutting promontories. Between these lay a long low island, which formed a perfect natural protection for the bay. Inland was an extensive lake. Upon the shore stood the small Egyptian town of Racotis. The advantages of such a situation were seen at once by the trained eye of Alexander. It was the ideal centre for the universal Greek empire, and was already celebrated in the verse of Homer. Foreign sailors, particularly Greeks, used to take refuge there in bad weather, and the spot was used, too, for getting supplies of fresh water. Homer had written of it in lines done into stately English by Chapman:—

A certain island call'd
Pharos, that with the high-waved sea is wall'd,
Just against Egypt
And this island bears a port most portly, where sea passengers
Put in still for fresh water.

And tradition pointed to the island as the home of Proteus, the son of Oceanus, who possessed such a marvellous power of evading importunate questioners. Jealous of the use made of this convenient harbour by foreign sailors, the Egyptian Kings established there the small garrison of Racotis. There was no finer site in Egypt than this for the establishment of the great city which was to unite the East and West. On the eastern Egyptian coast lay the ancient ports of Pelusium and Tanis; but it had not escaped the notice of Alexander's watchful engineers that the wash of the Mediterranean on that coast sets from west to east, and that the quantities of alluvial soil brought down by the Nile were gradually blocking the ports of ancient fame—Pelusium, Ascalon, Tyre, and Sidon. Alexander conceived that the new city would be the centre, not only of the commerce, but of the intellect of the world; and he flattered himself with visions of the warm breath of Hellenic culture kindling into fresher life the still and drear existence of Egypt.

ITS FOUNDATION

NEVER had human plans a grander result than had those of Alexander for the city which was to be named after himself, and never was there an abler lieutenant to carry out a great design than Dinocrates, the restorer of the Temple of Diana at Ephesus, and the author of the design for carving Mount Athos into an image of his royal master. The encouragement of the Invisible Powers seemed to follow the Macedonian King from the Oasis of Ammon to the sandy shore of the Mediterranean. It is said that an aged man appeared to Alexander in a dream, and repeated to him the already-quoted lines of Homer. The city was planned and laid out by Dinocrates in the form of a Macedonian mantle, "with a circular border full of plaits, and projecting into corners on the right and left; the fifth part of its site being even then dedicated to the palace." For want of chalk, flour was used to mark the boundaries of the new city. "While Alexander was pleasing himself with this project," says an ancient writer, "an infinite number of birds of several kinds, rising suddenly like a black cloud out of the river and the lake, devoured all the flour that had been used in marking out the lines; at which omen he was much troubled, till the augurs encouraged him to proceed, by observing that it was a sign that the city he was about to build would enjoy such abundance of all things that it would contribute to the nourishment of many nations." Under these favourable auspices was founded the city which was long to rank as the capital of the world. Dinocrates built broad streets, the two principal ones intersecting each other at right angles, and adorned the town with temples, palaces, and gardens. Merchants, traders, Jews, and men of letters soon flocked to the new city,

which had a climate of unusual salubrity owing to its peninsular position and its cool sea breezes.

ITS RISE

UNSATISFIED by conquest, and cut off while planning great enterprises, Alexander died at Babylon B.C. 323. Ptolemy Soter succeeded him as governor of Egypt. He chose Alexandria as his capital, and under his benignant rule the city grew yearly in importance and power. Its population was divided into three distinct classes:—Macedonians; the Mercenaries who had served under Alexander; and the native Egyptians. Just as no modern capital of wealth seems complete without its population of Jewish inhabitants, so it was in the ancient cities. Both Alexander and his successors, the Ptolemies, took particular pains to induce the Jews to settle in Alexandria. Alexander himself brought Jews from Palestine, and Ptolemy Soter brought 100,000 more. Philadelphus redeemed from slavery 193,000, and all these were admitted to the same privileges as the first division of the population, the Macedonians themselves. Their religion was respected, and in consequence of their favourable treatment numbers of Jews flocked to the city, of the population of which in future they always formed one of the most important elements. Under Ptolemy Soter and Ptolemy Philadelphus Alexandria became the most beautiful city in the world.

At the intersection of the two main streets stood the Mausoleum of Alexander, whose body had been brought from Babylon with the utmost pomp. Years afterwards the sarcophagus was opened, and the first of the Cæsars gazed upon the features of the illustrious conqueror of the Old World. Connecting the outlying island with the mainland was a massive mole, called the Heptastadium, which thus divided the harbour into two parts; and because the entrance was beset by shoals and sandbanks, a lighthouse called the Pharos was set at the extremity of the island. The structure was reckoned one of the Wonders of the World. Trade was wonderfully stimulated. It was the object of Ptolemy Soter to draw to Alexandria all the trade of the East, which up till now had been monopolised by Tyre. He built two cities, Berenice and Arsinoë, on the Red Sea, whither were brought all the products of the south and east. Thence the goods were carried on camels to Coptus on the Nile, where they were again shipped for Alexandria, whence they were distributed to all the nations of the West, in exchange for merchandise exported to the East.

THE MUSEUM

TITUS was fulfilled the first part of Alexander's mighty dream. Alexandria was the central mart of the world, the Queen of the East, the wealthiest city of the world. But its material power would never have given it the abiding place it has in the world's history, had it not been the centre of an intellectual movement, the influences flowing from which can never die away, and which are at this moment moulding to a great extent the destinies of the nineteenth century. The Museum was the intellectual centre of Alexandria. It stood in the Bruchion or aristocratic quarter, and contained within its circuit large courts with arbours and fountains, spacious apartments for residence and study, and ample colonnades for walking and conversation. This magnificent building was begun by Ptolemy Soter, and was finished by his son, Ptolemy Philadelphus. It was, in fact, a large university. No fewer than 14,000 students were at one time said to be in attendance there. It was divided into four distinct departments, those of medicine, literature, mathematics, and astronomy, and to facilitate studies of particular sciences, zoological and botanical gardens were maintained. Many of the leading men of learning lived in the Museum, where they used to dine together, the King himself sometimes sharing their repast. They reclined at tables placed according to their respective schools, the Aristotelian with the Aristotelian, the Platonist with the Platonist. The library was one of the most important features of the Museum. A body of transcribers was maintained especially to add to its treasures. Every book of importance which was brought into the country was taken from its owner, transcribed, and the transcript handed back, the original being kept in the library. Ultimately this noble collection numbered 400,000 volumes, and a daughter library was established, and placed in the Temple of Serapis. The smaller library comprised at length 300,000 volumes. Sometimes original works and translations were undertaken by the authorities of the Museum, the most notable cases being those of the Septuagint translation of the Bible, made under Ptolemy Soter or Ptolemy Philadelphus, and Manetho's "History of Egypt," undertaken by the command of Philadelphus.

ALEXANDRIAN PHILOSOPHY

AS was to be expected from the friendship existing between Alexander, Ptolemy, and Aristotle, the philosophy of the Stagyrte was the basis of the scientific school of Alexandria. The Museum was the cradle of physical science; for there science was studied by that method of induction by which all its lasting achievements have been gained. Experiment was largely resorted to, and though there had been science in Chaldea and India before the foundation of the Museum at Alexandria, it is to the planned and consistent methods of study laid down by the Museum that physical science really owes its origin. And probably never before or since in the world's history was there collected together such an illustrious cluster of men as those who made the name of the Alexandrian Museum in its palmy days. Demetrius Phalereus, the fellow-pupil of Menander, when driven from Athens, took refuge at Alexandria, where he became the chief of the Museum. The connection of the one name of Euclid with that of Alexandria would suffice to render

the city illustrious, but there were many more names of note. Eratosthenes was at one time the librarian, and he may be regarded as the father of astronomy and geography; Apollonius was a geometer hardly second to Euclid himself; Archimedes was the greatest engineer of antiquity; Ptolemy was an astronomer who deserves to rank with Hipparchus and Newton; and Ctesibius invented the fire-engine. Zeno was the source whence the Museum drew its ethical inspiration.

SOCIAL LIFE

IT had been the policy of Alexander to tolerate all forms of religion in the countries he conquered, and his leniency was continued by the Ptolemies in Egypt. The worship of Serapis flourished side by side with the Greek philosophy, and the Serapeum ultimately became the rallying-point of the old as against the new or Christian ideas. The Ptolemies restored the old sanctuaries and built new ones. In Denderah, Edfoo, Esneh, and Philæ they emulated some of the most striking edifices of the old Pharaohs. Theocritus has left a lively picture of the adventures of two wives of citizens of Alexandria on the day of the festival of Adonis. In his account we can see the life of ancient Alexandria reflected faithfully and minutely. The ladies, hindered by a lazy tiring maid, at length completed their toilettes. Not without trouble from the crowds in the streets, they started for the Soma, avoiding the broad and level Royal Road from the palace to the upper streets (the road which furnished Euclid with his saying "there is no Royal Road to learning"), they reached at last the palace, where they were permitted to see the statue of Adonis, and to hear the festal song before they hastened back to prepare their husbands' food. The feast of Dionysius was, however the greatest *fête* of the Alexandrians, and incredible were the sums of money spent on these occasions by lavish monarchs for the delectation of their subjects. Under Soter coinage was introduced, and trade much augmented, while his wives Thais and Berenice "set the fashions" for the Alexandrian ladies, and taught them how to wear their dresses gracefully. So flowed on the easy brilliant life of Alexandria under the Ptolemies. It combined the Greek love of beauty with the Oriental love of splendour. It was full, rich, and harmonious. The scepticism of the philosophers was accompanied in most cases by the most rigid morality; the superstition of the masses was too often stained by the lower forms of sensualism. The description of the people given by Trebellius Pollio, and quoted by Gibbon, answers as well for the time of the Ptolemies as that of the Romans. In reading it one is reminded of the fractious mobs of the Verona of a later time. Among people so sudden and quick in quarrel as these, the bling of a thumb would probably have led to quite as serious consequences as did that unfortunate remark about the shoes which is recorded by the historian:—"Frequently, on account of an omission of civilities, the refusal of a place of honour at a bath, the sequestration of a ballad or a cabbage, a slave's shoes, or other objects of like importance, they have shown such dangerous symptoms of sedition as to require the intervention of an armed force. So general indeed was this disposition, that when the slave of the Governor of Alexandria happened to be beaten by a soldier for telling him that his shoes were better than the soldier's, a multitude immediately collected before the house of Emilianus, the commanding officer, armed with every seditious weapon, and using furious threats. He was wounded by stones, and javelins and swords were thrown at and pointed at him."

THE FALL OF THE PTOLEMIES

UNDER Ptolemy Euergetes I. the palmy days of Egypt continued. All the best intellect of the day thronged his Court. But under the rule of the indolent and cruel Ptolemy Philopator the ruin of the dynasty began. Under Ptolemy Epiphanes matters became worse. Internal dissensions rent the country. Antiochus the Great attacked it from without. The guardians of the King initiated the downfall of the Ptolemies when they besought the protection of the Roman Senate. From that moment Egypt became in fact, though not in name, a province of the Roman Empire. Under Philometor Egypt regained something of its former grandeur, and his reign is of note for the secession of the Alexandrian Jews from the Temple of Jerusalem, and the foundation by them of a new temple at Heliopolis. A revolt of the always excitable Alexandrians in favour of Cleopatra, the sister and divorced wife of Ptolemy Euergetes II., was the most noteworthy event in the reign of that monarch, from which to that of Cleopatra, there is nothing to be recorded save a series of family feuds usually ending in murder or rebellion. Of the battles of Pharsalia and Actium, and the capture of Alexandria by Octavianus, nothing need be said here. With the suicide of Cleopatra the Ptolemaic dynasty came to an end, and Egypt became from that time a Roman province governed by prefects.

ALEXANDRIA UNDER THE ROMANS

UNDER Roman rule neither the trade nor the importance of Alexandria showed any visible decline. It continued rich, and was well governed, and we find from the account of Strabo, who visited the city in B.C. 24, that it had lost none of the features which had rendered it so remarkable under the Ptolemies. "The whole," he says, "is intersected with spacious streets, through which horses and chariots pass freely; but two are of greater breadth than the rest, being upwards of a plethrum wide, and these intersect each other at right angles. Its temples, grand public buildings, and palaces occupy a fourth or a third of the whole extent; for every successive king, aspiring to the honour of embellishing these consecrated monuments, added something of his own to what already existed."

LATER TIMES

THERE is not space here to follow in detail the fortunes of Alexandria, and we must pass rapidly over many important events. The Alexandrian Age may aptly be divided into two epochs, the first under the Ptolemies dating from B.C. 323 to B.C. 30; the second from B.C. 30 to A.D. 640; *i.e.*, from the fall of the Ptolemaic dynasty with Cleopatra to the irruption of the Arabs. Under Caligula the persecution of the Alexandrian Jews, who formed a large and influential part of the population, the pleading of their cause by Philo, and Josephus' reply to the attack of Apion upon the Jews and their religion, were the most stirring incidents; but about this time occurred an event which was destined to deeply influence the whole future of Alexandrian history, and that event was the introduction of Christianity. Tradition affirms that St. Mark himself introduced Christianity into Alexandria, and points to the site of the "Mosque of 1001 Columns," near what is now the Gabari Gate, as the spot where the Church of St. Mark once stood, where the Evangelist himself lived, and where also he was put to death. It is certain that the Christians regarded the building with the utmost reverence, but their efforts were unavailing to induce the Moslems to spare it. It was destroyed by the latter when the Crusaders were besieging Damietta. Whatever may have been the actual date and means of the introduction of the new religion, it is certain that its influence soon began to make itself slowly felt, and added one more to the conflicting currents of thought, the struggle between which, later on, shook Alexandria to its centre. The foundation of the school of Neo-Platonists by Ammonius Saccas and Plotinus was the most important event in the later intellectual life of Alexandria. They may be said to have united the religious notions of the East with Greek dialectics, and they represent about the last struggle of ancient civilisation with Christianity. The torch of Neo-Platonism was handed from Plotinus to Porphyry, and from Porphyry to Iamblichus, with whom the system may be said to have been first degraded. Its influence is to be traced long afterwards in Paracelsus, and our own too little known Richard Fludd. The temptation is strong to linger over the other celebrated names in Alexandrian history; but considerations of space warn us to deal briefly with the Arian controversy, and the decision of the Council of Nicea in favour of the Homoousians; and with the struggle between Athanasius and George of Cappadocia. George is more familiar to us English than any other Alexandrian, through his doubtless fanciful effigy upon the reverse of our sovereigns. Whether he was a "parasite," "rogue and informer," and "precious knave" as Mr. Emerson says in the "English Traits" (harsh words, the fairness of which Mr. Ruskin, if we recollect rightly, disputed in a number of "Fors Clavigera.") we cannot now stay to debate. It is enough for us to know that St. George of Cappadocia, afterwards Bishop of Alexandria, was lynched by the turbulent Alexandrian mob, and that he "became, in good time, St. George of England, patron of chivalry, emblem of victory and civility, and the pride of the best blood of the modern world." The storming and destruction of the Serapeum by the Christians marked the final downfall of the old Egyptian religion, though the other element of its former intellectual life survived in the persons of Theon and his beautiful daughter. How Cyril's fanatical and bloodthirsty monks stamped out the last remnant of Greek culture when they destroyed Hypatia is to be read in Charles Kingsley's glowing romance. Much of the history of these times turns on the struggle for supremacy carried on between the three great metropolitan cities of Rome, Alexandria, and Constantinople, and the contests between rival religious factions were the chief events in Alexandria until a new power appeared upon the scene, and swept away all factions in the ruin which overtook the common religion.

Decline and Renaissance

WHILE the Christian Church in the East had been split up into factions, Arians, Carpocratians, Nestorians, Valentinians, Gnostics, Marcionites, Marionites and others, incessantly quarrelling with one another, the Mohammedan power had been rapidly spreading, and Amru, a general who had been very successful in the Syrian Wars, commenced the conquest of Egypt. Memphis fell, and Alexandria was invested. Having the command of the sea, Heraclius was able to succour the town, but after a siege of fourteen months it fell into the hands of Amru. Writing to the Caliph, Omar, to announce the victory, Amru said that he had found in the city, "four thousand palaces, four thousand baths, four hundred theatres, twelve thousand shops for the sale of vegetable food, and forty thousand tributary Jews." Thus fell Alexandria, as Jerusalem had fallen, and the two most important Christian cities of the East were in the hands of the infidel. With the fall of Alexandria disappeared the last remnant of the library of the Serapeum. That of the Museum had been destroyed by Julius Cæsar. When, at the instance of his friend, John Philoponus, a Greek grammarian, Amru attempted to save the books, Omar replied: "If the books agree with the Koran, the Word of God, they are useless and need not be preserved; if they disagree with it, they are pernicious. Let them be destroyed." And Gibbon adds, with one of his solemn sneers, "If the ponderous mass of Arian and Monophysite controversy were indeed consumed in the public baths, the philosopher may allow, with a smile, that it was ultimately devoted to the benefit of mankind." It is but fair to say that the whole story of Omar's vandalism is denied by the Arab historians. In another half century, however, the Saracenic power was found decisively on the side of science and philosophy. There was a sympathy which was not unnatural between the believers in the Koran and the monotheistic Jews and Nestorians whom they found in Egypt, and a time followed during which there was a well-marked revival of science. But of Alexandria itself under the Caliphs little need be said. Amru had dismantled its fortifications, and dynasty succeeded dynasty while the town gradually lost its trade, and declined in importance. Under the Memlooks the gradual decay of its ancient glory was in no way checked, and when Selim defeated Toman, brought the

Memlook dynasty to an end, and formed Egypt into a Turkish pashalik, its ruin was complete. For two hundred and fifty years Egypt has no history worth recording. The Turkish pashas governing it soon became subordinate to the Memlook Beys, for the Memlook aristocracy had been left intact by Selim when he destroyed the monarchy. Ali Bey succeeded in throwing off the Turkish yoke, and his successors, Murad Bey and Ibrahim Bey, shared the chief power when, on July 1st, 1798, Napoleon landed at Alexandria, with dreams of founding an empire in the East.

THE RENASCENCE

WITH the landing of Napoleon begins the modern history of Egypt and of Alexandria. It is the boast of the French that, in the words of M. Barthélemy St. Hilaire, "our expedition, half scientific, half military, resuscitated Egypt." Napoleon announced that he came as the friend of the Sultan to rescue Egypt from the tyranny of the Memlooks. The latter were routed at the Battle of the Pyramids, and Napoleon was reorganising Egypt at Cairo, when news came of the destruction of the French Fleet by Nelson at the Battle of the Nile. Having carried out his expedition to Syria, Napoleon quitted Egypt, leaving Kleber in command, and hurried to Paris for the *coup d'état* of the 18th Brumaire. Then came Kleber's Convention for the evacuation of Egypt, his subsequent defeat of the Turks, his assassination, and the victory of the English under Sir Ralph Abercromby, by which the French were finally driven out of Egypt. During the operations before Alexandria the English cut off the water-supply of the besieged by letting in the sea to Lake Mareotis, and thus converted what was once a fertile plain, with only a fresh-water lake in its centre, into the baneful salt-marsh which is the worst drawback to the climate of modern Alexandria.

MEHEMET ALI

ON the retirement of the French from Egypt, the country again fell a prey to the Memlooks and anarchy, till there appeared upon the scene one whose name is indeed stained with some deeds of treachery and blood, but who was undoubtedly one of the greatest men the East has produced in modern times. This was Mehemet Ali, who was born at Cavalla, in Roumelia, in 1769, the same year in which Napoleon and Wellington first saw the light. Being left an orphan when quite young, he was adopted by an officer of Janissaries, commanding at Pravusta, and at the age of fourteen he distinguished himself by bringing to submission the population of a village which had refused to pay its taxes. Commercial speculation, of which he early showed himself fond, and the taste for which never left him, put him in possession of a small fortune, and in 1801 he was sent to Egypt in command of a small Turkish force. His intrepid spirit soon showed itself, and having attracted the notice of Khosrew, Pasha of Egypt, he rose to be commander of the Arnauts, the hardy Albanians who then formed the flower of the Turkish army. The confused and disorganised state of Egypt, which followed the expulsion of the French, offered the best possible opportunities to such a man as Mehemet Ali. The Memlooks were furious against the Porte because they had not been reappointed to their former posts of provincial governors. They were, however, weakened as a party by the rivalry of their leaders, El-Elfy and El-Bardisy. On the other hand, the Turkish Pasha had not yet consolidated his position, and did not feel himself secure from recall by the Porte. Under these circumstances, Mehemet Ali got himself appointed head of the police of the country, a position which offered him admirable opportunities for playing off one party against the other. The rapacious tyranny of the Memlooks had made them bitterly unpopular with the people; the Turks were hardly less grasping. Mehemet Ali skilfully fomented the hatred of the people to both parties, and at length he allowed himself, not unwillingly, to be selected as their ruler by the Cairenes. Khosrew, however, did not yield the victory without a struggle. He entrenched himself in the citadel at Cairo, to which Mehemet Ali, aided enthusiastically by the populace, vigorously laid siege. A remorseless fire was kept up for weeks, and it is difficult to know how the struggle would have ended, had not a firman arrived from the Porte, acknowledging the popular vote and appointing Mehemet Ali Governor of Egypt.

THE DESTRUCTION OF THE MEMLOOKS

MEHEMET ALI had thus gained one of his chief points; he had won if not the friendship, at least the support of Constantinople. But he had convinced himself that his position was insecure so long as the Memlooks retained even a vestige of their former power. Many of them were encamped to the north of Cairo, and some of Mehemet Ali's party entered into communication with the Beys, telling them that on the 17th of August, 1805, the Governor with all his troops would leave the city to witness the ceremony of cutting the first sod of the dam of a canal, pointing out that this was a favourable opportunity to seize the city, and stipulating for a sum of money to be paid for the information if the attempt upon the city were successful. The Beys fell into the trap. In the morning they arrived, broke open one of the gates, and marched through the town. Some soldiers fired upon them from a window, and with that signal began a massacre which for incidents of atrocious horror rivals any that have been recorded. Eighty-three heads were stuffed and sent to Constantinople; but this number represented a small part of those actually killed in the massacre. Most of the Memlook Beys retired to Upper Egypt, and handsome presents from Mehemet Ali induced the Porte to abstain from interference. The chief Shabin was defeated in a pitched battle; and after this Mehemet Ali adopted a more conciliatory attitude, which prepared the way for another act of shameless treachery. An expedition was to be undertaken against the Wahabees of Arabia, and the Memlook Beys then in Cairo were invited to be present at the ceremony of investing Toosoon, Mehemet Ali's favourite son, with the command of the army. Four hundred and seventy Memlooks entered the citadel, where they were courteously received, but afterwards in passing down the narrow road leading to the gates of the Citadel, the gate was suddenly closed upon them, and a second indiscriminate massacre began. This was on the 1st of March, 1811. Hardly any of the Memlooks escaped. One, it is said, leaped his horse from the battlements, and escaped uninjured, and the site of "The Memlook's Leap" is still shown to curious visitors. The massacre in the citadel of Cairo was the signal for a rising against the Memlooks all over Egypt. In Cairo itself scenes of horrible atrocity took

place. Such was the famous massacre of the Memlooks—one of the greatest slaughters which history has to record. But it answered the purpose of its author. It firmly established him upon the throne, and gave him undisputed authority over the length and breadth of Egypt.

All obstacles being now removed Mehemet Ali was at liberty to undertake measures of reform for Egypt similar to those which the Sultan Mahmoud was at the same time endeavouring to carry out in Turkey. He organised the army on the European model. He built and manned a considerable fleet. He introduced all the ordinary machinery of European life—police, regular taxation, education, telegraphs, quarantine laws, manufactories, hospitals, and colleges. He took the whole industry of Egypt into his own hands, and executed his industrial schemes by the aid of forced labour. He compelled the cultivation of cotton, planted olive and mulberry trees, and improved the breed of cattle. He sent the *élite* of the Egyptian youth to France for their education, whence, too, he drew skilful officers and civilians to aid him in his reforms. He established a college of medicine, and the printing-press at Boulac. Many of these measures have proved of the utmost benefit to Egypt; some, however, are ill-suited to the requirements of the country. The confiscation of land, the excessive taxation, and the system of forced labour led to the utmost wretchedness among the fellaheen. He doubtless misunderstood the real resources of the country, which are not manufacturing, but agricultural, and so skilled an observer as the late Mr. Cobden could speak of his administration in such harsh terms as these:—"Meheмет Ali is pursuing a course of avaricious misrule which would have torn the vitals from a country less prolific than this long since. As it is everything is decaying beneath his system of monopolies. The Pasha has by dint of force and fraud possessed himself of the whole of the property of the country. I don't mean that he has obtained merely the rule of the Government, but he owns the whole of the soil, the houses, the boats, camels, &c. There is something quite unique in finding only one landowner and one merchant in a country in the person of its Pasha." And in writing when in Egypt of the ruin of the cotton works he adds:—"All this is not the work of Mehemet Ali. The miserable adventurers from Europe, who have come here to act the parasites of such a blood-stained despot—they are partly the cause of the evil. But they know his selfish nature, and his lust of fame, and this is only their mode of deluding the one, and pandering to the other." One may admit that there is much justice in some of Cobden's strictures, and yet not withhold one's approbation from Mehemet Ali's attempt to improve his country. Apologists have even been found for his terrible massacres, which, it is alleged, were committed not from innate cruelty, but from boundless ambition. But judge him as we will, Mehemet Ali is the commanding figure in the late history of the East. Of his determined struggle with the Porte there is no space to speak here. Had it not been for the intervention of the European Powers he might have sat in the seat of the Caliphs, and the current of Turkish history might have been turned into another channel. But he was no match for the united powers of the west, and he did not long survive the humiliation caused by the deprivation of the Government of Syria, and the reduction of his army.

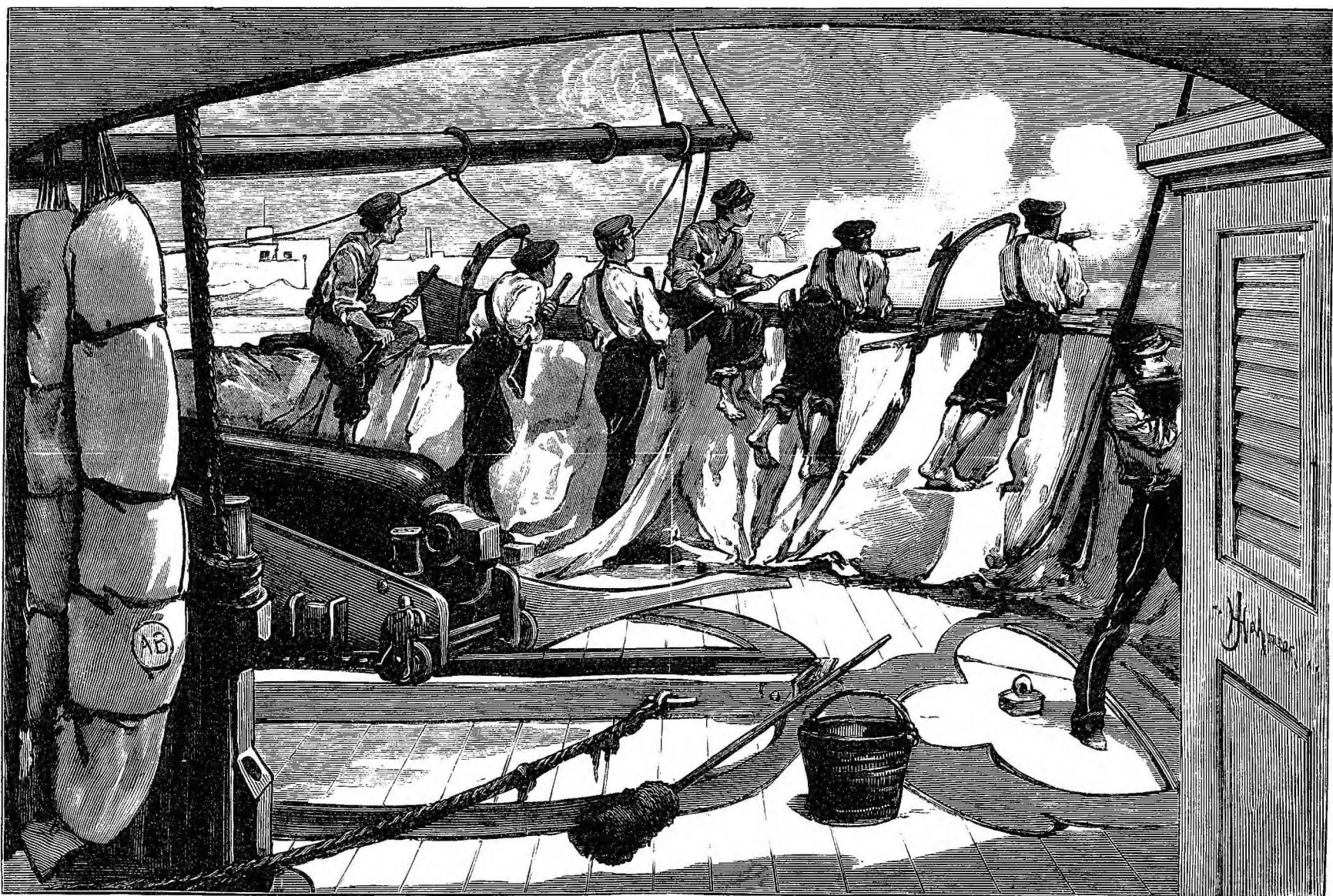
The reign of Ibrahim, Mehemet Ali's son, lasted but four months, and we have, therefore, no opportunity of knowing whether he would have been as able as an administrator as he was skilful as a general. Ibrahim was succeeded by Abbas, an ignorant, cruel, and bigoted voluptuary, whose reign was a disgraceful retrogression from all that had dignified his grandfather's rule. He met his death at the hands of his own servants, and was succeeded by the amiable and accomplished Said, third son of Mohammed Ali. Under him Egypt again entered upon the path of reform; but under him, too, she commenced the descent of the fatal incline of debt, which has led ultimately to the ruin which has now fallen upon her. Under Said the Suez Canal was begun, railways were constructed, and steps were first taken for the study and care of the national monuments. But he had neither health nor vigour of character for the arduous task of governing Egypt, and he will be remembered for good intentions rather than for great deeds. He was succeeded by Ismail Pasha, his nephew, the son of Ibrahim Pasha and grandson of Mehemet Ali.

Modern Alexandria

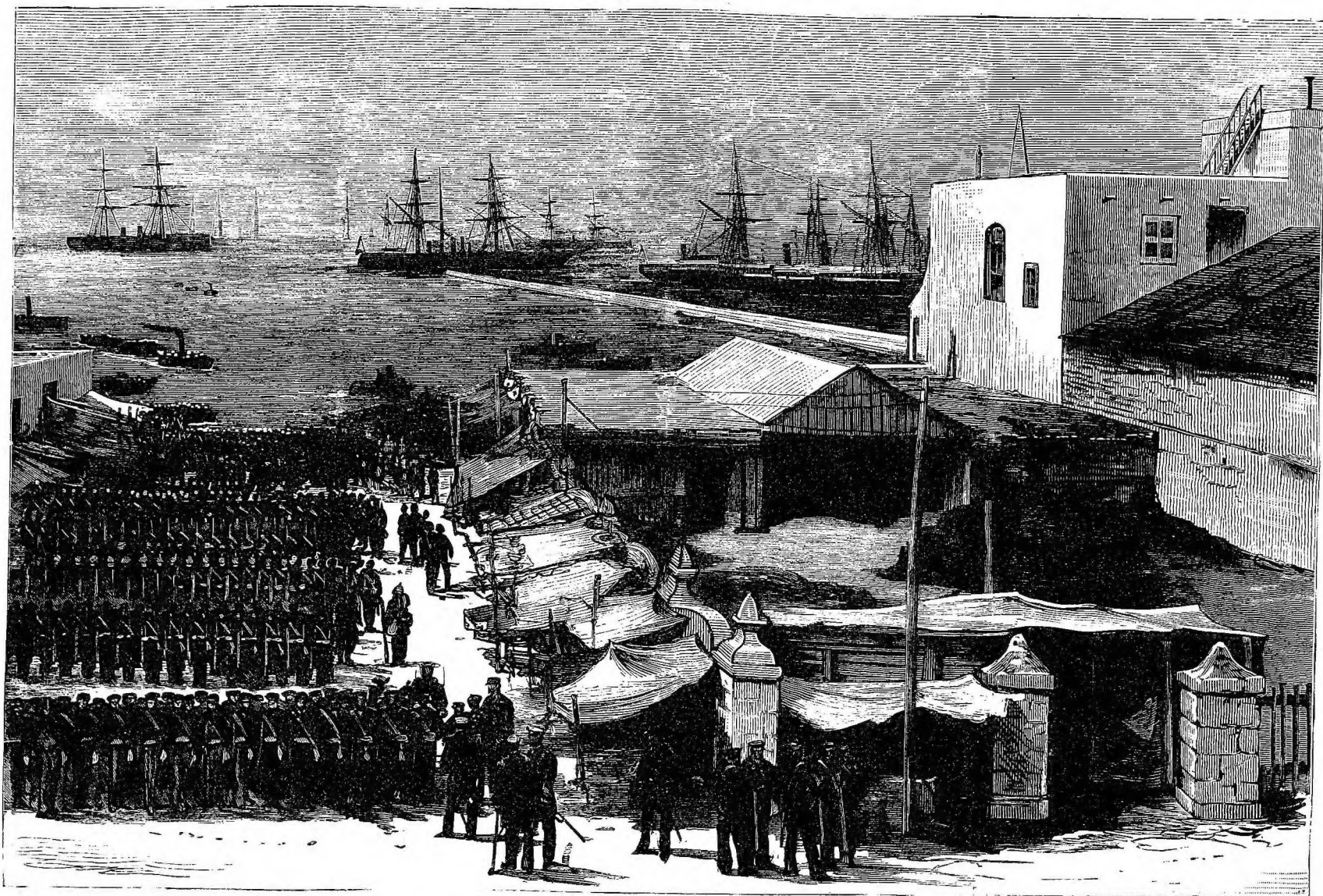
THERE is probably no other city in the world with antecedents in any way coming near those of ancient Alexandria, which shows in the modern city so few traces of its ancient grandeur, as does the Alexandria of to-day on the banks of Lake Mareotis. The most diligent searchers have failed to identify positively any of the famous sites of the ancient city. The place which is identified with most probability is the height of Kom-el-Dik, where probably stood the ancient Pancum, or Temple of Pan, whence Strabo says a good view could be obtained over the whole city. Ancient Alexandria extended further east and west along the shore, and to the south-east into what is now almost a desert. The modern city, as is seen at once when it is approached from the sea, lies almost entirely upon the ancient Heptastadium of Ptolemy Soter which was built to connect the Isle of Pharos with the mainland. In course of ages accumulations of *débris* and the wash of the sea have turned the original mole into a wide tongue of land, on which the modern city stands. So low is the coast, that no view of it is obtained until the vessel is close to land. Then is seen the long Isle of Pharos, with the lighthouse at one end and Ras-el-Tin Palace at the other. Despite its name—Cape of Figs—no Figs grow there, and the Palace, while pretty enough with its verandahs and balconies, possesses no architectural features. Along the sand banks to the west rise the forts, which were lately knocked to pieces by the British guns, and on the extreme right is Marabout Island, and the small cove, where Napoleon landed his army, marching afterwards on Alexandria along the sandy shore. The entrance to the harbour is difficult, as we have lately been often reminded. The Boghaz Pass is the best entrance, and once through that narrow opening, good anchorage is to be had inside the great breakwater, which was built by an English firm and finished in 1873. As the vessel approaches the shore, the now deserted and ruined palace of



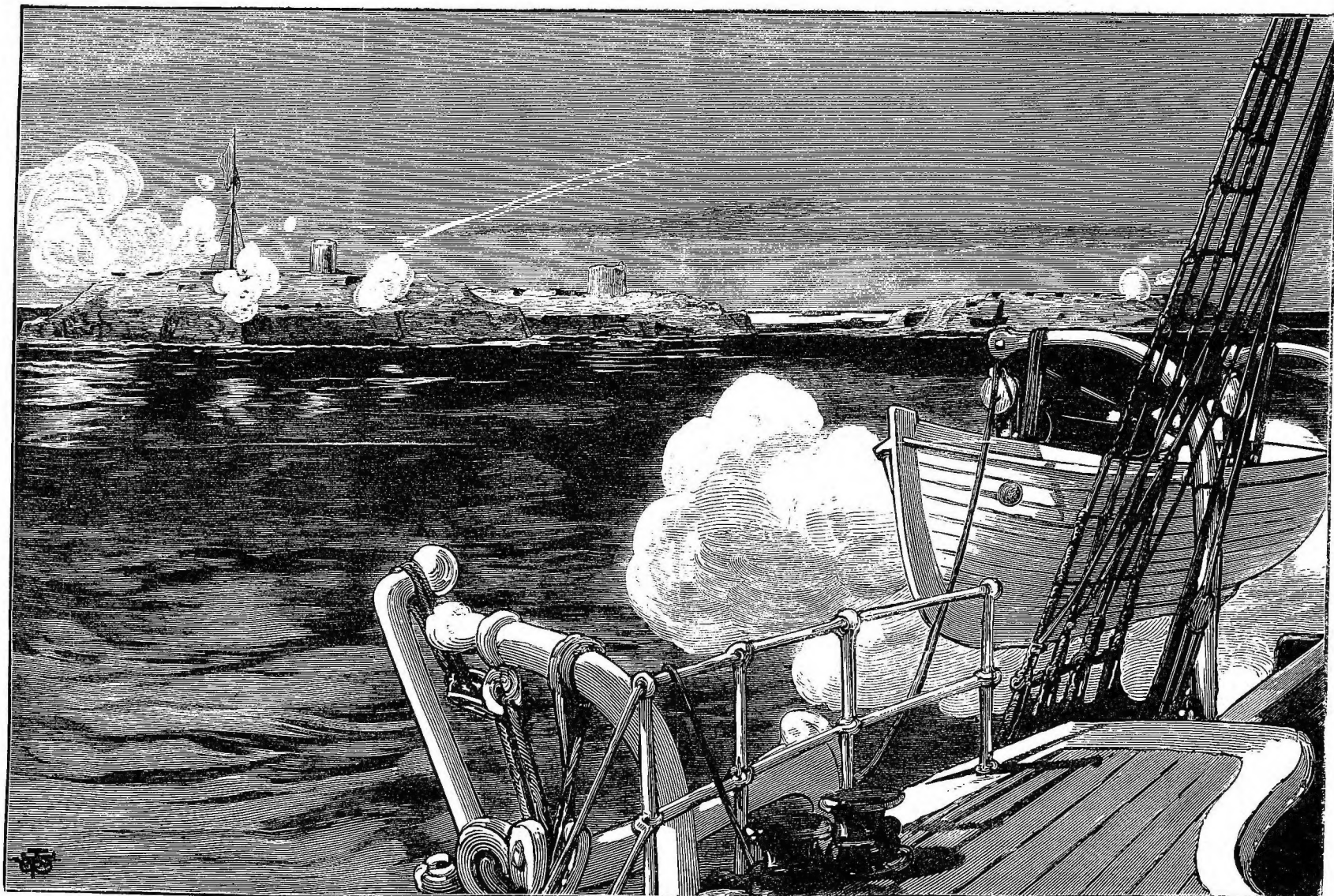
VIEW OF FORT PHAROS, ALEXANDRIA, FROM THE GREEK CHURCH



ON BOARD H.M. GUNBOAT "CONDOR" CLOSE IN SHORE DURING THE ATTACK ON FORT MARABOUT



THE QUAY, OLD PORT, ALEXANDRIA



H.M. GUNBOAT "CONDOR" ATTACKING FORT MARABOUT

Said Pasha at Gabari is to be seen on the right, and the quarries of Mex, from which the stone was brought for building the break-water and the new quays, which stretch from the mole along the shore as far as the Arsenal of Mehemet Ali. The European or Frank quarter lies at the other extremity of the town from the quay, and the way to it from the harbour is through the narrow streets of the native city, few of which has the distinctively Oriental character which gives such a charm to Cairo. In former days no foreign vessels were allowed in the western harbour, and the European houses are therefore built along the shore of the eastern, or old harbour. This is now used only by some native boats, for it is shallow, and exposed to the winds from the north. One of the most striking of Mehemet Ali's great works for the improvement of Alexandria was the Mahmoudiyeh Canal, constructed by the forced labour of some 250,000 fellaheen, 20,000 of whom, it is said, perished during the progress of the works. The Canal commences at the village of Atfeh on the Rosetta branch of the Nile, and is identical in part of its course with the ancient Canopic branch of the Nile. It is fifty miles long, and at the Alexandria end is bordered by pretty villas and gardens. On leaving the city, however, its scenery becomes monotonous, and there are no features of interest upon its banks. Of fine buildings Alexandria can boast none. The Theatre Zizinia and the Bourse are much inferior to such buildings in cities much less wealthy than Alexandria; the Greek, Catholic, Coptic, English, and German churches have no noticeable features whatever. The Grand Square, or the Place Mehemet Ali (for the French nomenclature of the streets is the more popular), was built of irregular houses, without any picturesqueness. Another large square, the Place de l'Eglise, or Square Ibrahim, containing the Post Office and the Hotel Abbât, is also in the European Quarter, as is the Boulevard Ismail and the Rue de la Colonne Pompée (Pompey's Pillar). Generally speaking the features that one is accustomed to think essential in an Eastern city are put much in the background in Alexandria, owing to the presence of a large floating foreign population. Our illustrations on page 20, taken from Professor G. Ebers' handsome volumes on "Egypt, Descriptive, Historical, and Picturesque" (Messrs. Cassell, Petter, and Galpin) show some of the social features of Alexandria. The scorpion-eating dervish is, however, a rare sight, for which one must usually go to Cairo, but the Bedouin can be seen in the outskirts of Alexandria. No Europeans stay long in Alexandria unless business detains them. A day or two is sufficient to see the chief features of the city, and Cairo, with all its wealth of beauty, calls the traveller from the other end of the Delta. Ramleh is the favourite suburb of the Europeans. There are seven stations on the Ramleh Railway, and in a small building near one of them, the Mustapha Pasha Station, died Sir Ralph Abercromby after his victory over the French. Concerning Alexandria, we may quote the words of Warburton:—"Here the Hebrew Scripture expanded into Greek under the hands of the Septuagint; here Cleopatra revelled with her Roman conquerors; here St. Mark preached the truth upon which Origen attempted to refine; here Athanasius held warlike controversy; here Amru conquered; here Abercromby fell." It seems, however, not unlikely that with the present century Alexandria may finally decline. The Suez Canal has tapped its trade, and Port Said is rapidly rivalling it in influence.

Egyptian Commerce

CONCERNING the trade of ancient Alexandria nothing shall be said here. A wide gulf of decadence and decay separates the ancient city of the Ptolemies from its modern namesake. When the French invaded Egypt in 1798 Alexandria consisted merely of a congeries of Arab huts, containing, according to Denon's calculation, 9,000 persons, according to that of Savary only 6,000.

A few weeks ago, before the massacre of June 11th, and the subsequent stampede, and the still more disastrous events of July, Alexandria contained a population of about a quarter of a million souls, of whom some fifty thousand were Europeans. At the time of Mehemet Ali's death the Europeans were only seven thousand in number. In fact, from that epoch may be dated the rise and progress of modern Egyptian commerce.

"European immigration," says Mr. John Slagg, M.P., in a valuable article which appeared in a recent number of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, "began in Mehemet Ali's time, and has been encouraged by successive Viceroys down to the time of Ismail Pasha and Tewfik Pasha. Under European influence the impetus given to the prosperity of Egypt has been enormous. The crops since 1860 have been nearly tripled. The natives did not formerly possess capital for conducting the cultivation of the soil, and the necessary advances have been made by Europeans, who have also assisted in bringing an immense area of waste land under cultivation. Steam pumping machinery for irrigating purposes has been introduced on a large scale. Europeans have erected cotton-ginning factories and steam-presses, which cause the cotton to be sent to market in a much cleaner and more valuable condition than formerly; and European capital has brought the produce from the grower to the shipping ports, and helped its final distribution. At the time of Ismail Pasha's deposition the natives were in a condition of bankruptcy, and the credit establishments which have since sprung up have enabled them to borrow money for their immediate wants, and to relieve the extortionate charges of their old mortgage system. The security given by the Anglo-French Control caused further capital to flow into the country, and interest fell to legitimate instead of usurious rates. Unaided the natives are incapable of conducting an export trade. For mechanical skill, and in the management of railways, factories, and, indeed, of industrial undertakings generally, they depend on the skill and experience of Europeans, who, however, only occupy the position of heads of departments, and seldom acquire landed property."

These observations show the fatal deceptiveness of the cry raised by Arabi and his adherents, "Egypt for the Egyptians." The European element was the life-blood of Egypt, and now that that element has almost vanished the gathered crops are lying in the interior unsold. The native grower can neither continue his cultivation nor pay his taxes, the rate of interest has advanced, commerce is paralysed, agriculturists cannot buy coal to work their

irrigating machinery, and thousands of native work-people are threatened with starvation.

These are sad facts, and they are mentioned here to show that Egypt, although almost entirely a country of agricultural industry, has suffered far more seriously from the effects of the recent troubles than is usually the case with agricultural communities, because the mainspring of her energies lay in the foreign population which, as it were by another Edict of Nantes, has been driven out of the country.

A map of Egypt shows a region of considerable extent; but it must be borne in mind that by far the greater portion of this is barren, waterless desert. Egypt as a habitable, cultivable country, consists in reality of the Delta or alluvial flats through which the Nile finds its way to the sea, and of the river valley, a strip of land varying from one to six miles wide, on either side of that celebrated river. It is this strip only which receives the benefit of the annual inundation. Besides these there is a fertile region called the Fayoum, 700 square miles in extent, about 80 miles south of Cairo, and several oases in the Western Desert, which, however, are necessarily somewhat inaccessible. Altogether the cultivable part of Egypt, exclusive of Nubia and the Soudan, amounts to something over 11,000 miles, or, roughly speaking, it is as big as Wales with Devonshire and Cornwall added in. The population of this tract consists of some 5,500,000 persons, so that the fertile part of Egypt is one of the most densely-peopled countries in the world.

The three staple exports from Egypt are cotton, cereals, and sugar. The cotton trade began to assume importance when the supply from the United States was checked by the Civil War. "The average crop now," says Mr. Slagg, "is about 230,000,000 lbs. weight, valued at 9,000,000*l.* Two-thirds of this comes to England. In the Bolton district alone some 5,000,000 spindles are employed on this staple, and 20,000 hands occupied; and if we take 2,000,000 spindles for other districts, even excluding Scotland, we may safely assert that fully 25,000 workpeople, whose earnings amount to 20*s.* each weekly, would be affected by the stoppage of our supply of Egyptian cotton."

In this connection, the trade in cotton seed should be mentioned. This is comparatively a new industry. Formerly the seed was burnt in bath-houses and ovens, or even thrown away. The total value of the crop is now nearly 2,000,000*l.*, and 90 per cent. of this is exported to England. In 1881 120,000 tons came to Hull alone. The seed costs 7*s.* a ton to crush, and 2,500 men and boys are engaged in the industry. But if the importation were to cease, not only would these people be thrown out of employment, but the farmers would suffer seriously as they would lose their cotton cakes, so valuable for cattle feeding on account of their peculiar astringent properties. The soap-boilers also would lose 50,000 tons of oil annually derived from the same source.

Next in importance come the corn exports, consisting chiefly of wheat and beans. They amount annually to about 1,000,000 quarters, valued at 1,250,000*l.* Three-fourths of this produce is taken by England. Maize, barley, and rice come next, though in smaller quantities. Of the two former products the larger part goes to England, while the rice is shipped to Constantinople and the Greek islands. Lentils, chick-peas, and peas, are also abundantly produced, and for nine-tenths of this crop Great Britain is the customer.

The production of flax has fallen off considerably since the expansion of the cotton cultivation, not more than 2,000 bales a year having been shipped during the last ten years.

"The production and export of sugar," says Mr. J. C. McCoan, M.P., in his admirable "Egypt As It Is," "on any large scale only date from 1867, when the erection of the first of the great Daira factories raised the manufacture of this article to the first rank of native industries. Egypt now equals Brazil in her production, exporting some 30,000 tons, valued at 600,000*l.* Most of it goes to the English and French markets. A considerable quantity of rum is also distilled, but this is all consumed in the country."

Among minor exports may be mentioned natron (muriate of soda), most of which goes to Italy and Austria; bones, of which 10,000 tons a year used to be sent to England. A large percentage of this export consisted of mummy bones, Mr. McCoan tells us. The trade has of late years fallen off, for two reasons. The pillage of tombs for this purpose has been prohibited, and the Daira sugar factories consume most of the modern cattle bones now collected, to make animal charcoal for decolorising the sugar. There is a paper-mill at Boulac; still all-devouring England manages to extract from Egypt every year some 16,000 bales of rags. Dates, henna (this goes almost entirely to France), wax, saffron, and opium are also exported.

The articles above enumerated are all produced upon the soil of Egypt, but, besides this, there is an extensive transit-trade from Nubia, the Soudan, Abyssinia, Arabia, and the remote southern provinces in such articles as coffee, ivory, mother-of-pearl, gum, skins, incense, ostrich feathers, tortoise shell, senna, tamarinds, &c. The Indian and Chinese transit-trade, consisting chiefly of silk, tea, and indigo, passes through the Suez Canal, and can scarcely therefore be reckoned as appertaining to Egyptian commerce.

For imports Egypt pays to foreign nations about 5,500,000*l.*, or just about a pound sterling for every individual in the country. These imports consist of manufactured cotton goods, silk, coal, charcoal, building materials, oil, wine, spirits, and machinery. England supplies 45 per cent. of the whole, Turkey and Syria 20 per cent., while the remainder is contributed by France, Austria, Italy, Barbary, Greece, Belgium, Russia, and Sweden. Most of the "madapolams," long cloths, grey shirtings, and cotton yarns are from Lancashire, although both France and Austria are serious rivals. England furnishes half-a-million tons of coal and coke, and the profitable character of this immense trade depends very much on the return freights which are expected to be obtained at Alexandria. Turkey and Syria supply most of the considerable domestic consumption of charcoal; wood for building purposes comes from Italy, Austria, Sweden, and Turkey; stone from Italy and Austria; oil from Italy, Barbary, Syria, and Greece; wine and liquors from France and Italy; machinery from England and France. The list need not be prolonged with minor articles.

Many people in this country are apt to regard Egypt as chiefly interesting to us because across its territory lies the shortest road to

our Indian Empire, and no doubt this is a fact of the first importance.

But Egypt would, without doubt, be interesting to us, especially since the making of the Suez Canal, even if her territory were all as barren as the sands of the Libyan Desert, and if the whole of her population were as averse to labour as the wandering Bedouins. She is, however, still more interesting to us, inasmuch as she possesses a soil, comparatively small in extent, if we exclude the southern provinces, but of unrivalled fertility, and inhabited by a population who have been noted as patient, industrious labourers ever since the days of the Pharaohs. Moreover, the foregoing details have clearly shown that, apart from the route to India, England has a greater commercial interest in Egypt than any other nation. Egypt buys from us nearly half her imports, and we take in return fully three-fourths of her exports. The most selfish motives, therefore, to say nothing of political expediency, should induce us to use every effort to bring back peace within her borders.

Ismail Pasha

THE accession of Ismail in January, 1863, to the Vice-royalty of Egypt, which had been made hereditary in the family of Mehemet Ali by the Firman of 1841, has justly been described as the commencement of a new epoch in the political and social history of the country. The new Vali—the higher title of Khédive had not then been given him—was, indeed, in all respects a Prince from whom the world had reason to expect much. His early life, when apparently far from the Vice-regal throne, had shown that he possessed considerable ability and still greater shrewdness. Educated in France, he had little in his appearance of the old-fashioned Oriental, saving a latent look of pride and obstinacy. He spoke French fluently, and in the management of his estates, where Ismail Sadyk, the notorious Finance Minister of after times, was his steward and factotum, had proved himself an accomplished man of business. In the reign of his uncle Abbas he had formed one of the opposition party of "the Princes" without, however, putting himself so prominently forward as to incur the special displeasure of the sullen despot. Under the liberal and kind-hearted Said he had acted as Regent during the Vali's absence on the Meccan pilgrimage, had himself revisited France, and made a tour in Italy, and had been entrusted with the command of an army in the rebellious Soudan, in which he had contrived to overcome opposition less by force of arms than by conciliation and intrigue. His person, though under the middle height, was not without dignity, and his manners, especially to foreign visitors, at once genial and imposing. The railway accident which had removed his elder brother in the nick of time when Said's life was drawing towards its close, though scandal-loving tongues talked strangely of the matter, had only increased among the multitude the general belief in his lucky star. The country under the easy rule of Said had greatly recovered from the strain of Mehemet Ali's long-continued wars; the revenue more than balanced the expenditure, and the debt which, much to the regret of the Vali, had begun to form towards the end of his reign, was after all a trifling matter for the great resources of the State. The political career which lay before him demanded precisely that dexterous mixture of intrigue, expenditure, and now and then, though rarely, of bold daring, in which Oriental genius is most at home. Though French by training and acquired habits, and brought up in a Court where French influences had from old times been steadily at work to maintain a supremacy over every rival, he was from the first rather inclined to put his trust in England, of the two great European Powers which alone at that date seriously contested the prize of political ascendancy on the Nile. But his main object, unremittingly pursued for years, and crowned at last with a deceptive success, was to emancipate himself from the oppressive sovereignty of the Porte, and wring or buy from the Sultan such concessions as might restore Egypt to the position it had held in the brighter days of his warlike grandfather, and enable him to build up in the persons of his own lineal descendants a new dynasty of virtually independent Sovereigns. And if the game was lost by him after all, overmatched as he was by the yet more subtle and equally unscrupulous financiers of Europe, backed in the last resort by the material strength of the great Western Powers, it may at least be admitted that he played it in right royal fashion, and yielded only to irresistible force. But among the many things which he inherited from his predecessor, the *damnsa hereditas* (for himself, if not for Egypt), which in the end proved more decisive of his fate than all beside, was the Ship Canal from Sea to Sea, for which M. de Lesseps, a short time before, had got the concession from his old pupil Said, and the construction of which was now pushed on in the teeth of all imaginable obstacles from the scanty resources of the promoters, the distress of the fellaheen under the monthly *corvée* of 20,000 labourers, and last, not least, the persistent opposition of the powerful Government of Lord Palmerston.

THE VICEROY AND THE CANAL

To Ismail himself, as we have said, the enterprise of M. de Lesseps was from the first a source of political and financial embarrassments, though none at that time could possibly have guessed that it would supply in after days the real motive for his overthrow; for it was assuredly not to save bondholders from loss, but to prevent the land through which the Canal passed from going to ruin that the Great Powers of Europe took the extreme step of compelling the insolvent Khédive to abdicate. Lord Palmerston, as was well known, had been hostile to the enterprise all along, because he feared it would give the French a footing in Egypt to the exclusion of other Powers, and might also form a danger to British commerce, which he thought would still follow the old route by the Cape. The Porte opposed it, chiefly to oblige England, but partly, too, from natural jealousy of foreign interference with one of its richest provinces. Neither Oriental nor Western diplomats had any notion that it would become at once a great commercial success, of which the profits would be monopolised by British enterprise, and an international highway, which would necessarily bring Egypt under the guardianship of the Powers, and convert her formal dependence on the Porte into a very real subjection to

the will of Christian Europe. Nor possibly did Ismail himself apprehend at first that it would also prove a cause of indebtedness, a burden round his neck which, if it did not create his subsequent embarrassments, at any rate had a great share in aggravating them. For when in the extreme need of 1875 he sold his shares in the Company to the British Government for a sum much below their real value, it was calculated, with apparent show of reason, that his enterprise, from first to last, had drawn from him, directly or indirectly, some 17,000,000*l.*, for which he had not received any compensation—even Egypt itself being only slightly benefitted by the mere transit of goods or passengers. The first difficulty with the Canal Company was not long in coming. The permission given by Said to employ the forced labour of the fellaheen was a sore burden to the industrious peasant, and Ismail, soon after his accession to the throne, was easily persuaded to revoke it. His doing so has been called the most honourable action of his life. It was also one of the most costly. M. de Lesseps could be very obstinate, and he was strongly backed in France. The matter was submitted to the arbitration of the Emperor, and the Viceroy, after much pleading and counter-pleading, was constrained to pay over 3,336,000*l.* (borrowed at 10 per cent. for the purpose) in compensation for a concession which had originally been a free gift, and had already indirectly cost his country considerable sums. A few years later, when the Company was in further straits, the Viceroy was again induced to come to its relief, and buy up the tolls on the Fresh-water Canal, the right of fishing in the lakes, the Company's store-houses, and other buildings for 1,200,000*l.* more. All this, however, was in the heyday of his greatness, when he cared little what he spent so that he could dazzle Europe with his magnificent hospitalities and his costly enterprises, and when money could be raised easily for any purpose of possible utility or sumptuous extravagance. And, doubtless, he thought his capital well laid out when the success of the enterprise was finally ascertained; and at the opening *fête* (November, 1869) the Emperor of Austria and Empress of the French were among his guests, and the honours paid him in Paris in 1867 were much more than repaid by the splendid festivities which for days made brilliant that new City in the Desert whose greatness has proved as ephemeral as his own. Much also was there in this first decade of his reign for which the Viceroy deserves real credit. The extension of cotton-planting that met the demand created by the American Civil War, the harbour works at Suez, the commencement of the breakwater at Alexandria, the reforms in public instruction, in the Customs, and in the Post Office—all carried out with the help of experienced officials supplied from England—were achievements of which any ruler, much more an Oriental despot, might have been proud. The admirable scheme for the supercession of the old Consular Courts by mixed international tribunals, though not realised until 1875, through the persistent opposition of France, was also the work of this happier period. Nor was it, perhaps, solely to throw dust in the eyes of the Western Powers by a meaningless aping of European customs that an attempt was made in 1868 to lay the foundation of Parliamentary institutions by the convocation of a "Chamber of Notables" at Cairo. But all this time his life-long purpose to loosen link by link the chain which bound him to the Porte was steadily kept in view, and with it were even mingled from time to time still more audacious projects, if he has not been belied, of supplanting his liege lord in the esteem of Islam, and regaining for the ruler of Egypt the mysterious dignity of the Khalifate.

THE VICEROY AND THE PORTE

WITH a Sultan, however, of the stamp of Abd-ul-Aziz in his better days, and Viziers such as Fuad and A'ali, it was necessary to deal warily. And Ismail had personal enemies at Constantinople—his brother Mustapha Fazyl and his uncle Halim above all. But whenever difficulties arose at Court his well-filled purse came always to his aid with bribes, and free gifts, and presents to the ladies of the harem, all of which, one year with another, more than doubled the annual tribute, though this too had been raised from 400,000*l.* to 700,000*l.* in recompense for the Firman of 1866, which abrogated the old law of succession in favour of his young son Tewfik—an innovation upon Moslem custom which certainly would not have been conceded had it not harmonised with a pet scheme of Sultan Abd-ul-Aziz for nominating in like fashion his son Yusuf Izzeddin as his successor. And thus, step by step, from permission to raise the army to 30,000 men and take, instead of Vali, the higher title of "Khidiv-el-Misr," "Sovereign of Egypt," to unrestrained liberty of action in all affairs of internal administration, and from this again to the right to contract loans without first asking his Suzerain's assent, and to make treaties *proprio motu* of a non-political character, he had come in 1873 within measurable distance of complete independence. But the way had been strewn with difficulties. He had been obliged to aid the Porte with men and money for the suppression of the revolt in Crete, and had incurred heavy censure for recalling his regiments prematurely. He had been accused of giving himself sovereign airs on his visit to Europe, and of entering into negotiations with Foreign Powers on the subject of the new International Courts of Justice; and, worst of all, he had been compelled to abandon definitely his cherished plan of creating an ironclad navy, and to sell his ships and needle guns to the Sultan. And even when all his wishes had been granted the ease with which Turkish troops sent through the Canal put down an extensive revolt in Yemen was ample proof that, after concession had reached its limit, there was still no question of the relative strength of the Suzerain and his vassal.

AGGRANDISEMENT AND COLLAPSE

THE six years between the opening of the Suez Canal and that utter collapse of Egyptian credit which was contemporaneous with the outbreak of troubles in European Turkey, were years of showy but unprofitable enterprises. France had no leisure to think of Egypt, and England for the greater part of the period was content to watch with considerable interest the seemingly earnest efforts of the Khédive to put down the slave trade in his southern provinces—once only stepping forward with effect when Egypt ventured to encroach on Zanzibar. Under Sir Samuel Baker first, and then under Colonel Gordon, the rule of the Khédive was extended almost to the Equator. War with Abyssinia was less fortunate, and the Egyptian army sustained two defeats, the latter of which was so severe—it

was even reported that Prince Hassan was taken prisoner—that since that time no Khédivial force has ventured to invade the dominions of King John. But the interests upon successive loans and the intolerable amount of floating debt were more at length than the Viceroy could cope with. In the winter of 1875 the sale to England for less than 4,000,000*l.* of the Canal shares which had cost poor Ismail over 5,000,000*l.* was a sign that money could be obtained by no other means. The institution of International Tribunals—three of First Instance at Cairo, Ismailia, and Alexandria, and one of Appeal at Alexandria—passed almost unnoticed in the general confusion. The 4,000,000*l.* were a drop in the bucket, and since nothing more could be got until confidence was restored, Mr. Cave, the Paymaster-General, was sent out, at the Khédive's own request, to report upon the financial condition of the country. The complicated negotiations of the next three years have been excellently described in brief words in a recent magazine article by Mr. Justin H. McCarthy. Mr. Cave's report showed that nothing could be done "without accepting heavy financial responsibility," and Mr. Rivers Wilson, who succeeded Mr. Cave, was equally powerless to effect any good. The Khédive could not yet make up his mind to the sacrifice of his enormous private estates, and to that thorough purifying of the whole system of collecting taxes, without which any suggested reform could only be a make-shift. Unable to obtain advances on any terms, he boldly issued, in May, 1876, a decree of repudiation. But now the new International Tribunals stepped in, and decided that the Khédive had broken his contract to the foreign creditor, and that the May decree was of no effect; and finally the "Goschen-Joubert Mission" was despatched to make the best terms possible under the circumstances for the French and the English bondholders. The same inability to get at the whole truth which had been experienced by Mr. Cave was experienced also by the new mission. The Khédive and his servants were still too cunning for them. There can be no doubt, however, judging from the later action of the Control, that the rate of 7 per cent. fixed by them for interest and sinking-fund was altogether too high, and that when there came a bad Nile next year the Khédive was within bounds in stating that the amount exacted by "the Goschen-Joubert Decree" was more than an impoverished country could pay, and in demanding a new Commission of Inquiry. One thing, however, Mr. Goschen's mission had accomplished: it had rid Egypt of Ismail Sadyk, "the Mouffetish." Accused by the Commissioners of falsification of his accounts, he was arrested as a criminal, to prevent his examination before the International Tribunal, and sent south to Dongolah, whence not long after a medical certificate of his death from "natural causes" and his burial was forwarded to the Porte and the foreign Consuls-General, and the whole matter was allowed to drop. Two several Commissions had now been foiled; the third, of which Mr. Rivers Wilson, aided by M. de Lesseps, was the guiding spirit, was more successful. No real reform, it was clearly shown, could be expected, until the Khédive yielded up the enormous estates—a fifth, or nearly so, of the entire cultivated land of Egypt—of which he had gradually become the owner, and which were now "so miserably administered as to result in a loss, not only to the country, but to the Khédive himself." With great reluctance, the Viceroy at length consented to surrender a million acres to the creditors of the State, and shortly after took the further step of summoning Nubar Pasha from exile to his counsels, with Rivers Wilson as Minister of Finance, Riaz Pasha as Minister of the Interior, and M. de Blignières (to appease the jealousy of France) as Mr. Wilson's colleague with the portfolio of Public Works. The overthrow of a Ministry so admirably constituted to carry out a reforming policy, though directly brought about by a "small army *emeute*," a foreshadowing of the greater movement which was to come just two years later, was also due in part to personal incompatibilities. Nubar himself was stiff and unconciliatory. He knew that he had been forced on the Khédive by events, and was by no means beloved by the Egyptians generally, and he took no pains to disarm opponents by civilities. The foreign members of the Cabinet were inimical because they were foreigners, while of Riaz Pasha it was boldly said that he was simply the most unpopular man in the country. On the other hand, the soldiers, to whom considerable arrears were due, had been rather hardly dealt with by the Ministers. They saw many of their old comrades begging in the streets; and they feared to be dismissed like them, without receiving payment for past service. Whether Ismail exaggerated or not when he assured *The Times* correspondent that by dismissing his Ministers he had saved their lives, there seems at any rate reason to believe that the attack on Mr. Wilson in the streets of Cairo on the 18th of February, 1879, was due at least in part to slighted national sentiment, for which the soldiery from the circumstances in which they were placed were naturally the first to find expression. Unfortunately for the Khédive, his slight success caused him to go further. Quickly discovering that the Western Powers were rather inclined to bark than bite, he sent both Nubar and Riaz into exile, called his old favourites once more around him, and announced that he would take into his own hands the settlement of the Egyptian liabilities. The unexpected declaration of the German Government that the claims of German subjects would be maintained at all hazards, brought matters promptly to a crisis. The Sultan, at the request of the Western Powers, decreed the deposition of the rebellious insolvent, and Ismail, after one desperate but futile effort to propitiate his Suzerain, was forced to leave his throne for Naples, taking with him a vast treasure, which has been roughly estimated at several millions.

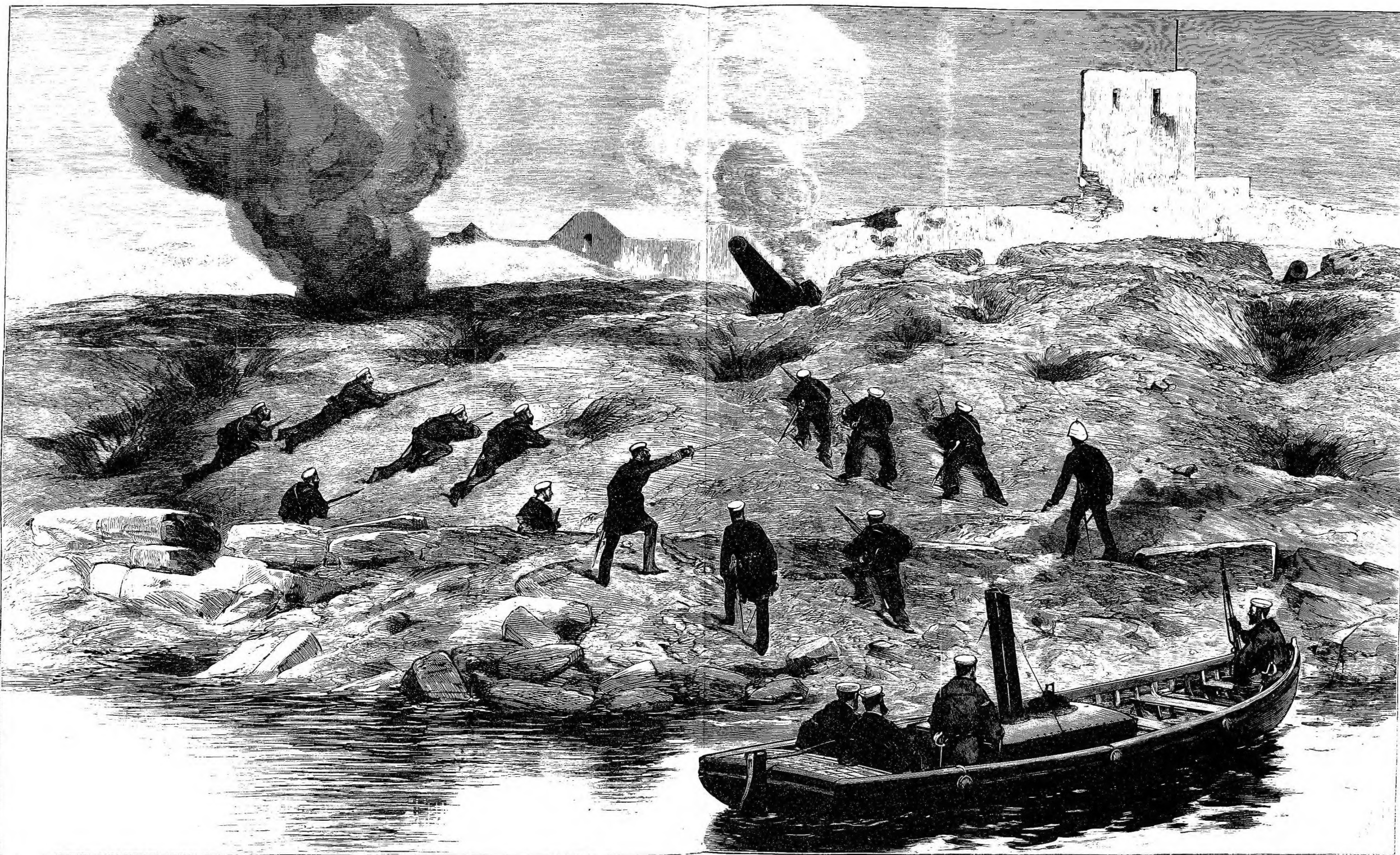
TEWFIK PASHA

THE deposition of Ismail raised to the vacant throne, by virtue of the Firman of 1866, his first-born, Tewfik, a well-intentioned and (with the fellaheen) not unpopular young Prince, who had for some time been associated with his Father in the Government, and in the Nubar-Wilson Administration, had held the Presidency of the Council. A man of greater amiability than force of character, the new Khédive will seem to many as undeserving of the sarcasms aimed at him by the friends of Halim—the legitimate ruler according to old Moslem law—as of the praises which have been lavished on his conduct in resisting the demands of the rebel soldiery. The opening of the new reign was memorable for the definitive establishment of the Anglo-French Control—M. de Blignières for France, Major Baring first, then Mr. (now Sir) Auckland Colvin for Great

Britain, being the two Controllers General, with powers of the amplest character. They had seats, but not votes, in the Council of Ministers; could call for any document they wished to inspect; could demand weekly reports of receipts and expenses from the Department of Finance, and monthly Reports from the other Ministers; could dismiss any functionary whom they considered useless, while they themselves were irremovable save with the consent of their own Governments; and, last of all, were charged each year with the preparation of the Annual Budget. A few months later, April 5th, 1880, a Commission of Liquidation was appointed, on which England, France, Germany, Austria, and Italy, the International Tribunals and the Egyptian Government were equally represented, and a report was issued fixing the interest of the Unified Debt at four and of the Privileged Debt at five per cent, and providing that any surplus revenue exceeding five per cent. should be at once applied to the reduction of the debt by purchases in the open market. Riaz Pasha was the new Premier, and for a considerable time all things went smoothly. Fault-finders, indeed, began to make it a complaint that the fellaheen who could borrow now at nine per cent. per annum where they used to pay four per cent. per month, were beginning to abandon their old thrifty ways.

Egypt for the Egyptians

IT is difficult even now to describe impartially the events which gradually, and as it were by an inexorable necessity, led onwards from some trivial *emeutes*, which a little firmness might at once have arrested, to troubles of a graver kind than Egypt has known for many centuries. It would not probably be correct to say that Jeshurun has waxed fat and kicked; but beyond a doubt the revival of prosperity kindled once more into dangerous activity the ambitions of the old race of place-hunters who had thriven on the corruptions of a corrupt *régime*, and who now found their occupation gone beneath the vigilant eye of the Control. The multitude, on the other hand, who saw only the bare fact that an army of officials of foreign origin were deriving large salaries under a system which had been called into existence not to benefit the country, but to secure the payment of the bondholders' claims, and who only imperfectly recognised the truth that high salaries meant honest work, complained with bitterness that their hard-earned gains should go not simply to pay old debts, but to make the fortunes of intrusive strangers. And not a few may have felt an honest wish that the Arab, in their own phrase, should hold up his head and take some share in the government of his country. Besides all this, from a very early stage in the movement false hopes were raised by foreign sympathisers, while mutual jealousies on the part of European States rendered them for a long time more inclined to hamper the action of the Western Powers, and prevent their ruling Egypt for the common good than to curb, while it might still have been done with ease, the progress of an agitation from which not Egypt only, but all who are interested in the prosperity of Egypt, must suffer in their turn no little loss. And the army, from whom the first impulse for evil came, was not without some natural grievances. Its pay, indeed, was no longer in arrears, as in the last year of Ismail's reign. But it knew that it was looked down upon, and that its reduction was among the contemplated reforms; and its officers were well aware that once put upon half-pay they had little hope of further provision from the State. Still its first movement was not against the Control, but against the Turkish and Circassian officers. These, it was urged, were unduly favoured at the expense of the native Arabs, and soon a very trivial quarrel became the signal for a somewhat formidable *emeute*. Ali Bey Fehmy, the Arab Colonel of the First Regiment of Infantry on guard at that time at the Abdin Palace, had accused a certain Circassian of supplanting him in the favour of the Khédive. The complaint had been addressed to Osman Rifky, the Minister for War, and he, a Circassian, has taken the Circassian's part. Three Colonels, the offended Ali Bey, Ahmed Arabi of the 4th Regiment, quartered at Abassieh, and Abdullah, Colonel of a Negro Regiment at Tintah, united in a remonstrance to the Premier Riaz. A Council of War ordered their arrest; but Ali Bey had warned his regiment, and two battalions broke into the room, delivered the Colonels, and compelled the Council to make their escape through the open windows. The Khédive, after vainly trying to appease the rioters, was persuaded by the foreign Consuls-General to give way. Mahmoud Baroudi, previously Minister of Religious Institutions, was installed at the War Office in Osman Rifky's place, and for the time the agitation came to an end. Now, however, there came to light a disastrous diversity of aims among certain of the representatives of France, which has continued even to the time when Arabi's position became one of open hostility to the Western Powers. Baron de Ring, the French Consul-General, had sympathised with the Colonels all along. He was at variance with M. de Blignières, whom he considered too Anglophile, and still more hostile to the Egyptian Prime Minister, and he was imprudent enough, even after the disorders of February 1st, 1881, to carry on a secret correspondence with the Colonels, advising them to insist on the dismissal of Riaz and the nomination of Osman Pasha, the Khédive's cousin, in his room. This came to the knowledge of Riaz, and Baron de Ring was recalled to France—a step which had the incidental result of proroguing for a year (since nothing could be done in the absence of one of the delegates of France) the meeting of the International Commission for the reform of the mixed Courts. These reforms, proposals in all cases of the Egyptian Government, were yet another sign of the times; for their real object, under cover of improving the native Courts, was to reduce in every possible way the foreign element in the judiciary. Meanwhile, by Sir E. Malet's advice, the Khédive issued a conciliatory address to the army, whose suspicion of the authorities was very marked; and on the 20th of April published a decree, increasing their pay, and nominating a military Commission, on which were four foreign Generals in Egyptian employ, and among them Sir Frederick Goldsmid, English Administrator of the Daira Sanieh, to inquire into matters affecting military regulations, promotions, retirement, and half-pay. The agitators were represented on the Commission by Colonel Arabi, but in the presence of the foreign members Turks, Arabs, and Circassians forgot their differences, and all united against the alien



LANDING PARTY FROM H.M.S. "INVINCIBLE," UNDER LIEUTENANT BARTON R. BRADFORD AND FLAG-LIEUTENANT THE HON. HEDWORTH LAMBTON, DESTROYING GUNS AT FORT MEX

element. More meetings were held denouncing Riaz, and Arabi even declared in the bosom of the Commission that he should refuse obedience if ordered to the Soudan. The popularity of the Khédive among the fellahen was evidenced in his April visit to the Canal. But he lacked force for self-assertion, while Riaz, on the other hand, made enemies on every side by his overbearing manners—even M. De Bliignières beginning to turn against him. No other Premier seemed, however, possible just then, for Nubar was quite as unpopular as he, and the time had not come when Sherif would be accepted. The Military riots at Alexandria in July, when the corpse of an artilleryman who had been run over in the streets was borne by a party of his comrades to the Palace of Ras-el-Tin, and the heavy sentences passed upon the rioters, further augmented the displeasure of the soldiery. Of the guilty artillerymen, the leader had been sentenced to hard labour for life; the rest, to three years in the galleys at Khartoum; while almost at the same time nineteen officers, cashiered for mutinous conduct towards their colonels, were permitted to retire on half-pay. Abdullah Bey remonstrated with the Minister of War, but nothing was done, and in the course of August Mahmoud Baroudi was appointed by the Khédive.

THE SEPTEMBER EMEUTE

The return of the Khédive to Cairo in September appears to have brought matters to a climax. The colonels were in perpetual fear of arrest, or of being sent South, where mutineers are easily disposed of. Even Sir E. Malet's absence at Constantinople excited their suspicions; it was thought that he had gone thither to get help for the Khédive from the Porte. A story got abroad that the Khédive had procured a secret decree from the Sheikh-ul-Islam condemning them to death for high treason. Spies were continually hovering about their residences. Colonel Arabi in particular, whose regiment was under orders for Alexandria, entertained no doubt but that a man had been sent from the Prefecture of Police to murder him. On the morning of the 9th the unsuspecting Khédive was startled by the news that the troops were coming from the Abassieh to put him to death. Of the Anglo-French officials only two were with him, Mr. Cookson, the British Consul, and Sir Auckland Colvin, who had arrived that morning. But there was still time for a prompt and resolute ruler to rally the regiments close at hand, and intercept the mutineers upon the way. Unfortunately the Viceroy frittered the time away, and when the insurgents appeared before the Palace, 4,000 strong (for the faithful regiments of the morning had now gone over to them), and with eighteen cannon pointed at the windows, he lacked the courage to follow Sir Auckland Colvin's advice, and when Arabi presented himself before him at once command him to give up his sword. "What can I do?" he whispered. "We are between four fires. We shall be killed." So he bade Arabi sheath his sword instead, and the opportunity for a bold stroke was lost. The demands of the insurgent troops were three: the dismissal of the Ministry, the Convention of a National Parliament, and the immediate carrying out of the recommendations of the Military Commission, including the increase of the army from 12,000 to 18,000 men. To an inquiry from Tewfik if they had forgotten that he was "the Khédive and their master," he answered Arabi, from the Koran, "is he who is just. He who is not just is no longer ruler." The Khédive fell back in dismay, and Abdullah's negroes replaced the First regiment as guard about the Palace. Mr. Cookson now took up the discussion, and after a while prevailed on Arabi to waive the immediate execution of the last two demands, and content himself for the time with the dismissal of Riaz and the appointment of Sherif Pasha as the new Prime Minister. Sherif, however, was by no means anxious to take office: in truth he did not clearly see his way. He wanted above all free choice of colleagues, and the removal of Arabi's and Abdullah's regiments from Cairo. Assistance from Constantinople was not to be expected, for Arabi's influence was now in the ascendant at the Porte. At length the interposition of the Notables, whom the Colonels had summoned to consult with them and had found unexpectedly on the side of order, induced the latter to moderate their demands; and Sherif, once more appealed to by the Khédive, consented finally to take office, only pledging himself to restore Mahmoud Baroudi to the Ministry of War, and to carry out the recommendations of the Military Commission on all points except the immediate increase of the army. That, as well as the proposed Constitutional changes, was to stand over for consideration. Nor were the officers very hot upon these points even yet. To provide for their own security was still the chief concern of the men who had now committed themselves so deeply.

THE ATTITUDE OF THE PORTE

Two years before this time the Sultan would have been the first person called upon to reduce the unruly military to order. At present the Porte was in no wise anxious to move in the matter—least of all to strengthen the hands of the Western Powers and their protégés; and neither France nor England desired Turkish help. To the former, especially in the midst of her Tunisian troubles, the mere idea of Turkish intervention on any point of Northern Africa was most unpalatable. The Sultan, however, without consulting either, determined to send two Commissioners, Ali Nizam Pasha and Ali Fuad, with "compliments and advice." Their visit was only of twelve days' duration, in which they were received with marked coldness by the Khédive, while France and England signified their displeasure by ordering each an ironclad to Alexandria, there to remain until the envoys left. Tewfik, meanwhile, had gratified the army with concessions on the score of pay, leave, promotion, and retirement, and on the 4th of October had decreed the meeting of a Chamber of Notables, to be elected under the old law of 1867, for the discussion of internal reform; but not of anything affecting the financial engagements of the country. Arabi now consented to leave Cairo for Ouady, Abdullah Bey for Damietta. The fears which had been entertained of an annexationist policy on the part of England were almost wholly allayed by Lord Granville's November despatch, in which much stress was wisely laid on the desire of Great Britain to see Egypt in the enjoyment of "administrative independence," and on the advantages to her of her present connection with the Porte as a "valuable safeguard against foreign intervention." To the French, on the other hand, this straightforward missive of Lord Granville's, for some cause or other, was

most displeasing. They professed to cherish the greatest apprehensions of the approaching meeting of the Chamber of Notables—the elections were on November 10, and the Session opened on December 26—and at length persuaded England to join them in

THE JOINT NOTE OF JANUARY 8

THIS Note, in which the French and English Governments assured the Khédive of their intention to support him against any complication, "internal or external, which might menace the order of things as established in Egypt," had the misfortune of irritating people all round. The so-called National party took it for a hint that Egypt might share the fate of Tunis; the Sultan, who saw himself again ignored, instructed his Ambassadors to complain of it as "unjust and unnecessary;" while Germany, Austria, Italy, and Russia gladly embraced the opportunity to snub France and England, by informing the Porte that any change in Egypt would be "a matter for the consideration of all the European Powers." Had M. Gambetta remained in office, the Note might not have proved a *brutum fulmen*, and it must be owned the conduct of the Egyptian Chamber, which at once began to meddle with the Budget, justified to a great extent his previous apprehensions. As it was, the fall of the French Premier, the indifference of England, and the almost ignominious retreat of M. Gambetta's successor from a position which seemed to him and his countrymen too hazardous, produced in Egypt a most unhappy impression, which led the Nationalists on from bad to worse. From this time forth their downward course was rapid.

The claims now advanced by the Chamber, including the right "to vote the Budget, complete Ministerial responsibility, and the initiative in all laws," were more than even Sherif could approve, and were fatal, as Sir A. Colvin pointed out, to the very existence of the Control, for if Ministers were to be responsible, not to the Khédive, but to the Notables, there was no longer any power to which the Controllers could appeal if over-ruled. Early in February Sherif Pasha resigned, and a new Ministry was formed by Mahmoud Baroudi, in which Mustapha Fehmy Pasha was Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Arabi, no longer Under-Secretary as in January, but full-blown Minister of War and virtual Premier. France and England marked their sense of the crisis by a Collective Note, invoking the European Concert, and accompanied by a separate Note, of a somewhat apologetic nature, to the Sultan, in answer to his previous Protest. The hope that Turkey would consent to act as policeman on behalf of Europe was fondly cherished everywhere except in France. Meanwhile the protests of the Control became more despairing every week. There was no longer "an efficient Government" in the country: since April, '81, there had been added to the estimates 300,000*l.*, on account of military expenditure, and now, in issuing their Report for 1881, showing only a moderate surplus, they were constrained to add that in their judgment the equilibrium for 1882 would be imperilled. In other matters too besides finance the Military began to over-ride the law. On March 13 Arabi had insisted that certain friends of his should be promoted without passing the examination required by the State. A month later a graver incident occurred, which was, in fact, the beginning of the end. Though 560 officers had been promoted, 200, mostly Circassians, were left out, and among these a plot was said to have been discovered against the life of the War Minister. No less than fifty were arrested, and subjected, it is believed, to torture. Forty were sentenced to exile for life in the Soudan, and a list of other names had been prepared, including even that of Sherif Pasha; the beginning, in fact, of a veritable proscription. But the Khédive, backed by the foreign Consuls, now stepped in, and commuted the sentences to simple banishment, unaccompanied even by military degradation. The English Agent suffered no one to approach until the commutation had been actually signed. This led to an open rupture with the agitators. The Notables convoked by them "over the Khédive's head," refused by an overwhelming majority to obey the call. The popularity of Arabi began rapidly to decline, and men like Sultan Pasha, the President of the Chamber, became bold enough to withstand him to his face. But his last move had broken the patience of the Western Powers, and the despatch of the Allied Fleets to Alexandria marked the commencement of a new act in the drama, the end of which has not yet arrived.

THE EGYPTIAN ARMY

ALTHOUGH rated low by military critics, the Egyptian soldier has not had always a bad "record." The annals of our own service could tell tales of an unpleasant little defeat of a picked British force, 800 strong, by an Egyptian army in 1808. The troops of Mehemet Ali did fair work some fifty years ago in Greece and Syria; and, though the Egyptian won little honour in Abyssinia, or in the grander battle fields of the Bulgarian campaign—it is said by some that he did fairly well at Karahassankoi—there are doubtless tough hearts among the regiments, above all among those recruited from the negroes of the Soudan. The short service system was introduced by Ismail, and the soldier, as a rule, is half his time on furlough; but the *cadres* are maintained for a much larger force than has ever since Mehemet Ali's days been assembled under the colours; while, besides those absent on leave, there are the *redifs* or reservists, who have served their time, roughly estimated at 30,000 men, and behind these again 60,000 Bedouins, irregular cavalry of very dubious value, furnishing their own arms and horses, and commanded in battle by their own chiefs. Of regular infantry there are eighteen regiments, each of three battalions, armed with Remingtons, and of cavalry, four regiments of six squadrons each, part armed with sabre and carbine and part with lances and revolvers; 150 guns (100 Krupps, and 50 smooth-bores), are set down to the artillery; and the supply of stores and ammunition of all sorts is said to be ample and complete, though the want of a military train greatly detracts from the general efficiency of the service.

The Naval Demonstration

THE FORTS AT ALEXANDRIA

THE forts which guard the approach to Alexandria form (or should we say formed) two separate systems of defence, of which one commands the New Port and the eastern part of the town, in other words, the approaches eastward from the sea and landwards

from Aboukir, the other the Western Harbour and the passes through the shoals, known severally to mariners as the Corvette, the Boghaz or Central, and the Marabout or Westernmost Pass. The Pharos Castle is the easternmost; the batteries of Marsa-el-Kanat, of Marabout Island, and of Fort Adjimi, the most western of the long line of coast defences. Between these two extremes most conspicuous are Fort Ada, guarding the north part of the town, the batteries to the east of Ras-el-Tin and the new lighthouse, and the line of forts extending almost without a break from Fort Tsale to Marsa-el-Kanat. Within the town itself, Cafarelli, a relic of old French occupation, could have opened from its elevation of 109 feet, a formidable plunging fire on the New Port and Inner Harbour; as could Marabout Island on the outer roadstead. The armaments of these forts were more formidable than generally imagined. Those of Fort Marabout may be taken as a specimen. There were two 18-ton and two 12-ton guns, two 10-inch and two 8-inch, twenty 32-pounders, and five mortars. At Ras-el-Tin, again, was an 8-inch Armstrong in a Moncrieff pit and not far off three 8-inch guns in a beautifully constructed earth-work, which had resisted every attack. Such forts, even in Egyptian hands, would almost certainly have given a good account of Mediterranean squadrons fifteen years ago.

ARRIVAL OF THE ANGLO-FRENCH SQUADRON

ON May 20 the British and French Fleets reached Alexandria, their intended arrival having been notified to the Khédive by the French and English Consuls-General some days before. The British vessels consisted of the flag-ship *Invincible*, with Admiral Sir Beauchamp Seymour on board, and the gunboats *Falcon* and *Bittern*, while France sent the *Galissonière*, bearing Rear-Admiral Conrad and the gunboats, *Forbin* and *Aspic*. Received with due honour by the forts, the Admirals immediately exchanged visits with the Alexandrian authorities, while four of the ships took up their positions inside the Mole, the two others remaining outside. A few days later the English were reinforced by the ironclad *Inflexible* and the gunboat *Condor*, which had left the remainder of the squadron in Suda Bay, while two Greek war vessels joined the allies. Up to the last moment Arabi strove vigorously to evade the naval demonstration, declaring that he would send troops to prevent the vessels entering the harbour. His failure to coerce the Chamber of Notables and his forced reconciliation with the Khédive, however, showed Arabi his weakness, and he was obliged to be content with vigorous protests, and endeavours to arouse fanaticism by representing the presence of the squadron as infringing the Sultan's rights. The majority of the population, however, remained indifferent, and Arabi even found it difficult to assemble the army reserves, some of the soldiers being so unwilling to join that they had to be brought in chains. Still, the Military party by no means lost heart, and the Consuls' efforts to open unofficial

NEGOTIATIONS WITH ARABI

PRODUCED no satisfactory result. Arabi was willing to consult with the French Agent, but steadily refused to comply with the Powers' demands that the malcontent generals, including Arabi himself, should leave Egypt. He further announced that he would not entertain any negotiations whatever until the Allied Fleet was withdrawn. Finding Arabi impracticable, stronger measures were taken, and on May 25 the British and French agents presented to the Egyptian Premier an

ULTIMATUM

DEMANDING the dismissal and banishment of Arabi, the exile of Ali Fehmy and Abdullah, and the resignation of the Cabinet. The demand was refused by Mahmoud Samy; but as the Khédive had accepted the Ultimatum in opposition to Ministerial advice, the Ministry resigned forthwith. The Khédive took up the reins of government with unwonted activity, summoned Cherif Pasha to form a Cabinet, and issued proclamations to the military and provincial authorities bidding them stop recruiting and promote tranquillity. Tewfik then assembled the State dignitaries, the Ulemas, Deputies, and chief officers at the Palace, and informed them that the Anglo-French demonstration was purely friendly, and that he himself intended to take the supreme command of the army. Such an arrangement did not suit the officers, who replied most insolently, refusing to recognise foreign interference, and left in a rage. Immediately afterwards the military commanders at Alexandria telegraphed to the Khédive that they would not recognise any commander but Arabi, giving Tewfik twelve hours for consideration, while in their turn the Cairo Ulemas, Notables, and military held a stormy meeting at the house of Sultan Pasha, the President of the Chamber, and finally sent Sultan Pasha to Tewfik proposing that Arabi should be maintained as War Minister. This proposal was at once rejected by the Khédive, and his refusal caused the most intense excitement in Cairo; the army assuming a threatening attitude. Arabi not only roused the military, but warned the religious bodies, merchants, and the chief inhabitants that unless they forced the Khédive to yield, they would lose their lives. Greatly alarmed, they at once went off in a body to the Palace, and so strongly urged the Khédive that he at last unwillingly gave way. Accordingly, a proclamation was issued announcing the reinstatement of Arabi at the request of the Ulemas and the Chamber of Notables, and under the pressure of the army, the latter passage giving great umbrage to the officers, who complained bitterly to Arabi, and demanded that the insult should be repaired by the Khédive's deposition. As Arabi, however, had only just assured the foreign representatives that he would maintain peace he was obliged to calm his turbulent followers, and once more go through the farce of reconciliation with the Khédive. Not that this reconciliation restored public confidence. It was felt that such a patched-up peace could not last, and the excitement prevailing among the natives created a

PANIC AMONG THE EUROPEANS,

WHO literally poured out of Cairo and Alexandria, the homeward bound steamers at the latter port being obliged to turn away passengers. The banks sent away their valuables, and the British Consul at Alexandria, Mr. Cookson, while endeavouring to allay the excitement, thought it prudent to instruct the British community in the best means of reaching the shore in case of emergency. The British squadron was further reinforced by five ships, and French

(Continued on page 16)

SPECIAL NOTICE.

HAMPTON and SONS'
EXHIBITION SALE,
NOW OPEN until AUGUST 5,
OF the MAGNIFICENT
FURNITURE, CARPETS, and CURTAINS,
REMOVED from the
ALHAMBRA COURT, CRYSTAL PALACE, which,
THROUGH an ARRANGEMENT with
THE BRUSH ELECTRIC POWER STORAGE COMPANY,
ARE NOW SELLING at LESS than COST,
AT the SOCIETY of BRITISH ARTISTS' spacious GALLERIES,
SUFFOLK STREET, PALL MALL EAST,
AND WILL INCLUDE a GREAT NUMBER of the
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ALSO SEVERAL SPECIAL MANUFACTURES,
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TABLES, PERSIAN STOOLS, LAMPS; a NUMBER of VERY
FINE VASES, some being very LARGE and RARE.
A FEW CARPETS, RUGS, and the CURTAINS.
DECORATIONS.—NEW TREATMENTS will be SHOWN at the
GALLERY
IN CARTON PIERRE WALL DECORATION,
THE WALTON LINCRUSTA WALL DECORATION,
WOOD DADO PANELLINGS;
ENGLISH, FRENCH, and JAPANESE PAPER DECORATIONS;
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CHIMNEY-PIECES, in VARIOUS STYLES, at the GALLERY, and
the SHOW-ROOMS, PALL MALL EAST.
ENGLISH, FRENCH, INDIAN, and JAPANESE ART POTTERY,
THE ENTIRE COLLECTION of SPLENDID SPECIMENS of
LOULTON FAIENCE, lately exhibited at the SOCIETY of ARTS.
STOVES, hand-painted TILES, FENDERS, and FIRE BRASSES.
DINING-ROOM FURNITURE, at the GALLERY, and the SHOW-
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DRAWING-ROOM FURNITURE, at the Gallery, and the Show-Rooms,
Pall Mall East.
IN GREAT VARIETY, Amongst which are the Following:—
FIFTY ELAANT EBONIZED CABINETS, 4ft. wide and 6ft.
high, only £5 18s. 6d.
FIVE HUNDRED OCCASIONAL OBLONG TABLES, Ebonised or
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with five levelled Plates, 3 ft. high by 2 ft. 3 in. wide. (Usual price 4s.) 35s.
A MANUFACTURER'S LONDON STOCK of SAMPLE SUITES
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SUITES IN ASH AND WALNUT, with Silvered Plate Glass Door
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THREE HUNDRED BRASS AND IRON BEDSTEADS, the whole
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GLYKALINE.
THE APPROVED SPECIFIC, for
Curing Colds, Catarrhs, and Affections
of the Respiratory Organs.

GLYKALINE effectually relieves
Disorders of the Mucous Membrane, so prevalent
in winter, cleanses the bronchial tubes from Mucus,
and relieves the breathing. By its use Colds are cured
in a few hours. GLYKALINE is an unprecedented
remedy in these complaints.

INDEPENDENT TESTIMONIAL

to GLYKALINE.
"TALON ROUGE," writing in *Vanity Fair*, under
date March 17, 1877, says: "This medicine has the
valuable property of curing cold in the head. The
man who has discovered a surer remedy for this plague
ought to be ranked among the benefactors of the human
race. The other morning I awoke with the feeling of a
general oppression, the certain precursor of a catarrh.
I sped to the nearest chemist's, and found of Rue longed-
for remedy. BEFORE NIGHT I WAS CURED. It is a
colourless, tasteless fluid, called GLYKALINE. The
unsolicited correspondent of *Vanity Fair* bears testi-
mony that three drops of the Specific, taken at intervals
of an hour, will certainly cure the most obstinate of
colds. He writes disinterestedly, 'desiring,' as he
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GLYKALINE is the surest and
speediest Remedy for relieving all who suffer
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Full directions with each bottle.

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THE APPROVED SPECIFIC,
For Curing and instantly relieving Toothache, Neu-
ralgia, and Pains in the Nerves.

NEURALINE is known as a reliable
specific in cases of Rheumatism, Gout, and
Sciatica. It relieves often INSTANTANEOUSLY, and will
be found invaluable to all who are afflicted with
these disorders.

NEURALINE seldom fails to give
relief. It is in demand throughout the world.
As a sure specific against Nerve Pains it is deservedly
celebrated, a single application (in many cases) perma-
nently curing the sufferer. Sir James Matheson received
the following letter from Mr. Edgar, of Butt Light-
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It proved the MOST SUCCESSFUL REMEDY SHE HAD
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AN APPROVED APPLICATION FOR
Preserving the Hands, the Skin, and Lips from Rough-
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AUROSINE quickly removes Chaps,
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sea-air and cold. It renders the surface of the skin
beautifully smooth; imparts suppleness, whiteness,
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The Best Preparation for the Teeth and Gums.

This elegant and approved preparation may be used
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hardens the Gums, and improves their colour. As an
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For Liver Derangement, Indigestion, and Consti-
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Headache, Derangement of the Liver, Biliousness, and
Nausea. It promotes healthy action in the stomach,
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Extract from the *Medical Times*, Jan. 12, 1886.

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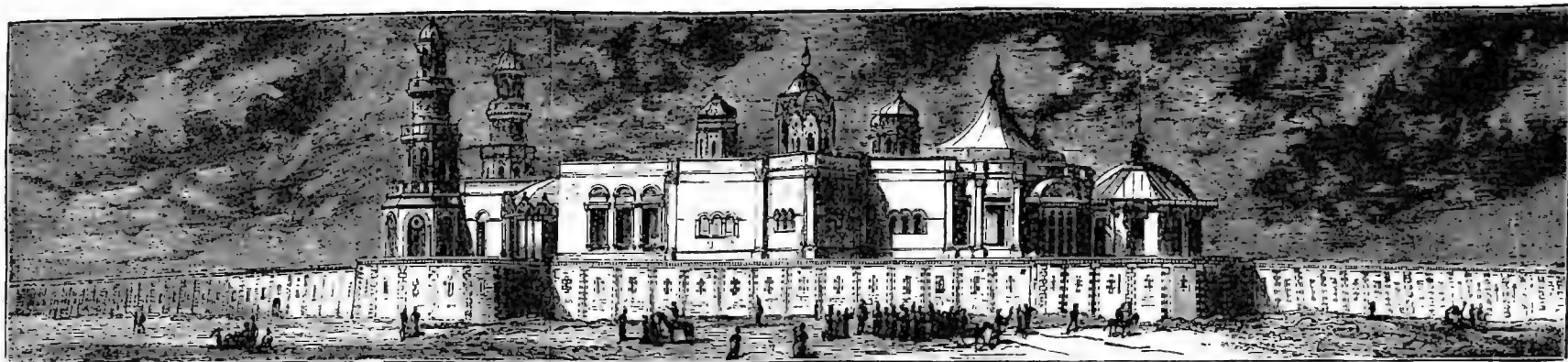
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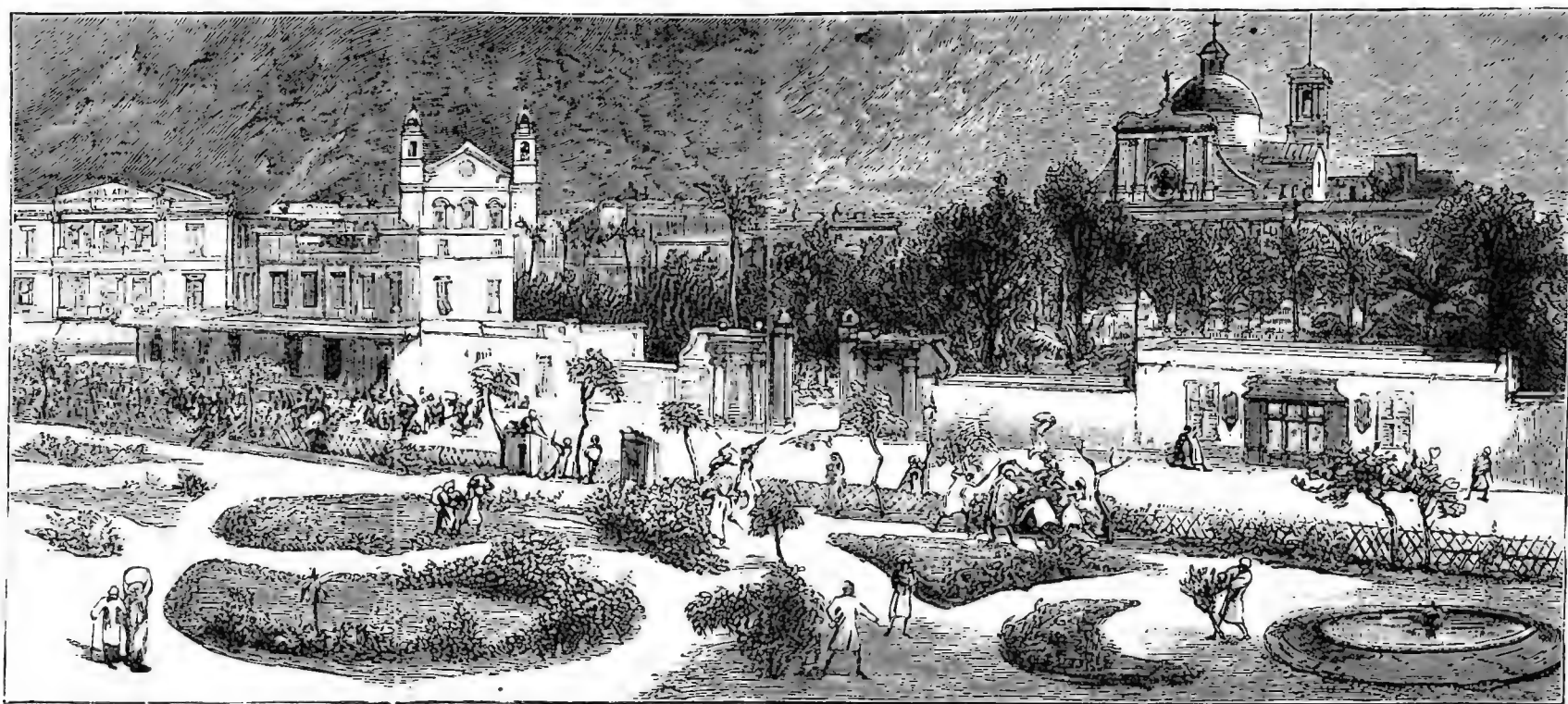
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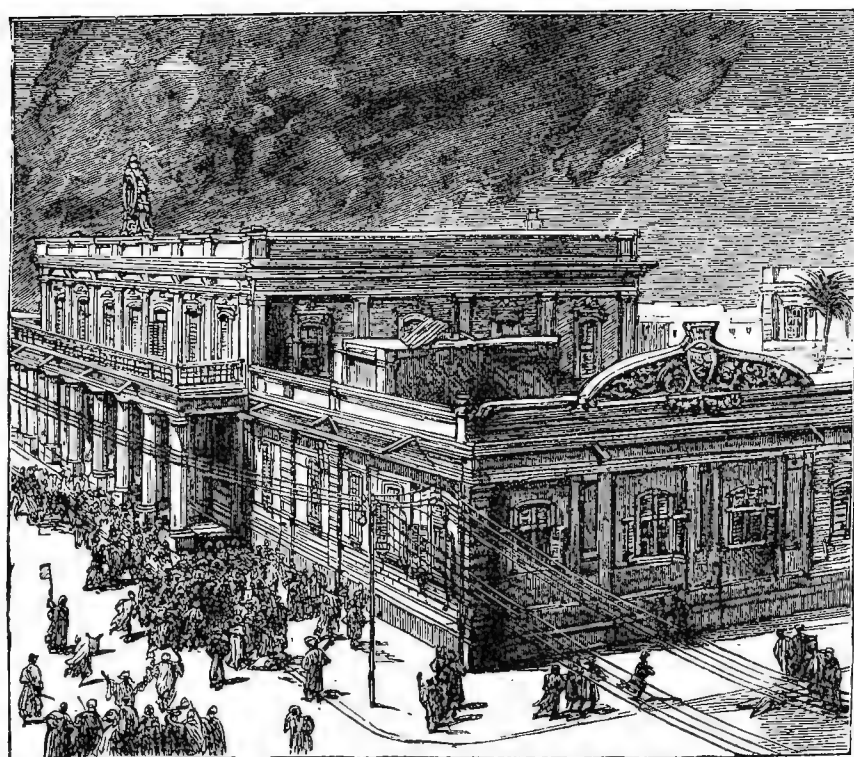
PALACE OF SAID PASHA, GABARI



PLACE DE L'ÉGLISE, ALEXANDRIA



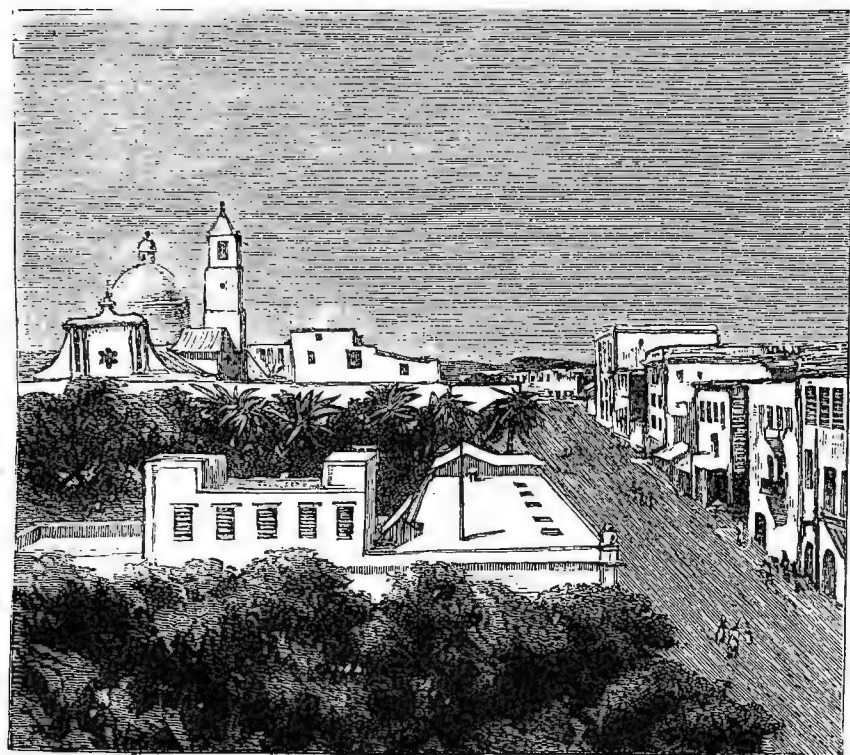
DRILLING THE "IDLERS" ON BOARD H.M. GUNBOAT "CONDOR"



THE BOURSE, ALEXANDRIA



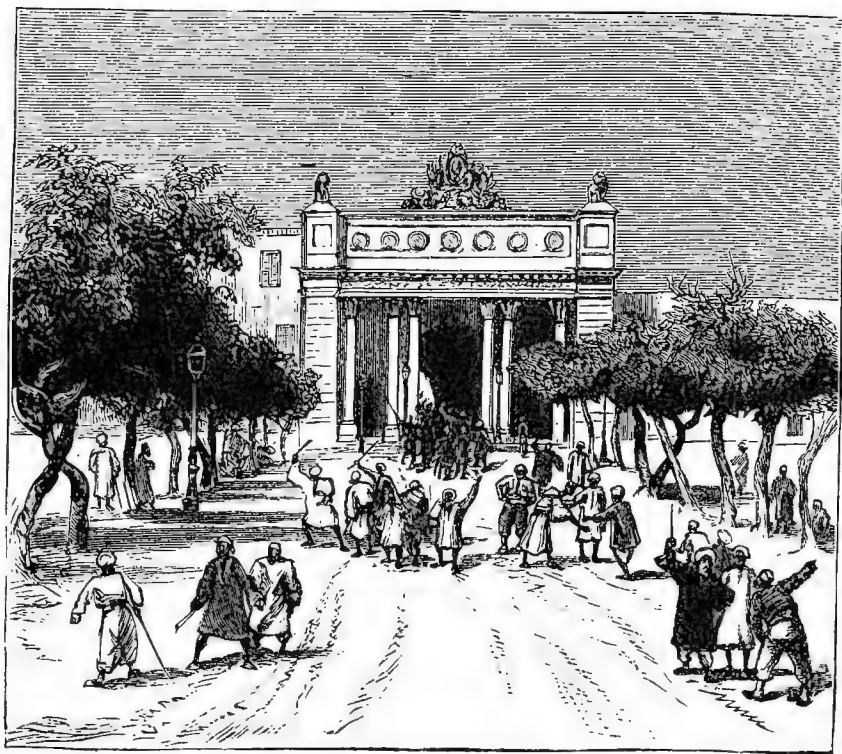
HÔTEL ABBAT, PLACE DE L'ÉGLISE, ALEXANDRIA
Now Occupied by the French as a Consulate



RUE DE LA COLONNE POMPÉE, ALEXANDRIA



GARDEN OF THE KHEDIVE'S PALACE AT RAMLEH
Looted by Bedouins



ENTRANCE TO THE PALACE OF RAS-EL-TIN, ALEXANDRIA



THE ZIZINIA THEATRE, BOULEVARD ISMAIL, ALEXANDRIA

vessels were held in readiness to join their consorts off Alexandria, where the Egyptians on their side had already begun covertly to strengthen the fortifications and erect new works while fostering a spirit of fanatic resistance among the poorer classes. Meanwhile the Khédive asked the Sultan to send a Turkish Commission to assist him, and after considerable hesitation and delay the Porte agreed to

THE DESPATCH OF DERVISH PASHA AS TURKISH COMMISSIONER

THIS decision was hastened by the Powers' proposal for a Conference at Constantinople on the Egyptian Question, in which Turkey firmly refused to join, preferring to act solely on her own responsibility. Dervish Pasha, who had shown considerable vigour in pacifying Albania, was chosen for the mission. The Khédive immediately expressed his gratitude, and Arabi, who had evidently taken his cue throughout from Constantinople, duly joined in the welcome at Cairo on June 8th. Dervish was received with great ceremony and apparent enthusiasm, and brought with him presents and a letter announcing that his mission was intended to restore order and strengthen the Khédive's authority. Arabi was to have been outwardly ignored, but the wary Minister sent his under-secretary to greet Dervish at Alexandria, and his representative, contrary to the Khédive's orders, managed to obtain a seat in Dervish's carriage on his entry into Cairo. But the Commissioner was somewhat cool to Arabi himself, and while giving numerous interviews, carefully abstained from compromising remarks. At first the Turkish mission produced a good impression, and it was hoped that the difficulties might even yet be settled peacefully, but gradually Arabi and his military party, finding that Dervish confined his efforts to talking, regained confidence, and the situation at Cairo once more grew critical.

THE SHADOW OF THE COMING CONFLICT

HAD meanwhile appeared at Alexandria. Fresh vessels were fast being added to the Anglo-French Squadron, which lay opposite the forts, with steam always up, and Admiral Seymour now perceived that not only were the forts being extensively armed, but that formidable earthworks were thrown up on all sides. He accordingly complained to the Porte, and the Khédive was requested to command Arabi to stop the works. After a slight demur Arabi complied, asserting, however, that the works were only necessary repairs, and repeating his usual protest against the presence of the Foreign Squadron. The following Sunday brought matters to a crisis.

THE RIOT OF JUNE 11th

INSOLENT as the natives had become to Europeans, no immediate outbreak was feared at Alexandria, where indeed many ladies and children had come from Cairo for safety. But in the afternoon of June 11th a serious disturbance broke out, which though professedly aroused by a quarrel between a Maltese and a donkey-boy, was evidently premeditated, as the assault began simultaneously in several parts of the town. The Maltese attempted to thrash the donkey-boy, and was immediately set upon by the Arabs, who, as the conflict took place close to the Great Square, or Place Mehemet Ali, rushed in great force into the Square and attacked every European they met. Armed with stout sticks, the Arabs now appeared on all sides, hunted through *cafés* in search of Europeans, and specially attacked all those in carriages. Mr. Cookson, the British Consul, who was going to the Governor to ask for aid, was badly hurt, and, indeed, his life was only saved by his cavass diverting the aim of a knife. The Greek and Italian Consuls were also injured, while the situation was made worse by the Greeks and Maltese firing on the Arabs from the surrounding windows, and thus injuring many Europeans. The fight spread to other streets, several of which were sacked, and while many unfortunate Europeans took refuge in the police-stations, only to be massacred by the guard, others were flung into the harbour in a dying condition. For five hours the city continued in a most alarming state, and at last the town authorities, who had looked on indifferently, condescended to send troops to quell the riot, but not until nearly fifty Europeans were known to be killed, including the engineer and two seamen from the British ironclad *Superb*. Subsequently it was estimated that 250 Europeans in all lost their lives, while large numbers were seriously wounded, the Arabs doing their best to beat the heads of their victims to a pulp so as to prevent recognition. As the evening came on those Europeans hidden away in different houses gathered at the Consulates and chief buildings, and most of the ladies and children—who had behaved with great courage—were taken off to the *Superb*, and subsequently transferred to the P. and O. Co.'s *Tanjore*, which conveyed them to Venice. The city was patrolled by the Egyptian soldiers during the night, and next morning a perfect stampede of Europeans set in, people leaving their property to take care of itself, and crowding on to the vessels in harbour regardless of the scanty accommodation. The British authorities did their best to provide a refuge by chartering vessels and despatching those available to Malta, Cyprus, and other ports, but as most of the refugees belonged to the poorer classes, and were utterly destitute, considerable difficulty was experienced in providing for them. Day by day the exodus increased, till soon more than 50,000 Europeans had left the country, while their departure stopped most of the public works, and threw an enormous number of natives out of employ. This added a new element of danger to the situation. The news of the massacre created the utmost alarm at Cairo and the panic was not lessened by

THE DEPARTURE OF THE KHEDIVE FROM CAIRO

TEWFIK had found his position untenable at his capital where, indeed, Arabi had been virtually declared master of the situation. So the Khédive departed with Dervish, Arabi ostentatiously giving his master his arm to the carriage, and paying him every mark of respect; and Tewfik's example was followed by every European who could possibly leave. Vainly endeavouring to restore confidence, the Khédive constantly drove through Alexandria, scantily attended, and ordered a band to play in the Great Square every evening; but the natives maintained their sulky attitude, and openly insulted the Europeans, who closed their shops, fearing pillage. Every effort was made by the Europeans to avoid arousing native hostility, and the British dead were buried at sea lest a funeral on land should give fresh cause for an outbreak. But all this time Arabi at Cairo was pulling the strings, and his influence resulted in the formation of a Cabinet under Ragheb Pasha, in which Arabi kept the War Ministry. As the Khédive declined to return to Cairo, the seat of Government was accordingly transferred to Alexandria, where Arabi's arrival did not mend matters, for the natives, emboldened by his presence, knocked off the hats of peaceable Englishmen in the streets, and jeeringly told them that they would be treated as Arabi treated the British sailors. Accordingly the Consuls formally warned their countrymen to leave, and the different war-ships embarked their respective compatriots with all despatch, many being so eager to get away that they even sold their property by auction in the streets, and parted with their land at absurdly low prices. Meanwhile the Ministry published their programme, which included the maintenance of the *status quo* and all international operations, and the promise of an amnesty for all, except those implicated in the

massacre of the 11th. Admiral Seymour had already demanded that the rioters should be punished, and a Commission of Inquiry was duly formed; but the French and British representatives soon found that the inquiry was a mere farce, and refused to attend, while shortly after the Commission was dissolved, on the pretext that it excited the public mind. Nevertheless the Egyptian Government continued to assure the Europeans that order was restored, and that there was no necessity to leave, while the Porte boasted of the "happy result of Dervish's mission," and sent Arabi the Order of the Medjidieh in recompense for his services. This mark of approval from his suzerain further strengthened Arabi's prestige, and the War Minister openly declared that he had been secretly supported by Turkey all along, and could prove his assertion. Anxiety had made the Khédive ill with fever, and sickness also prevailed amongst the British representatives. Sir E. Malet was obliged to leave for change of air, Mr. Cookson was invalided from the injuries received in the riots, and the Vice-Consul, Mr. Calvert, also broke down in health, so that the Suez Consul, Mr. West had to take charge of the British interests while awaiting the arrival of Mr. Cartwright from England as acting Consul.

THE SAFETY OF THE SUEZ CANAL

WAS another source of anxiety. Alarming reports were circulated of 5,000 disaffected soldiers being on the watch, of Bedouins haunting the banks, and of explosives being stored at Ismailia. Many of the officials left, and the Egyptian Ministry were asked by M. de Lesseps to ensure the protection of the traffic. Ragheb returned a vague reply, hardly calculated to allay the anxiety, which was heightened by the rumour that Arabi intended to blow up the Canal on the first sign of British hostile intentions. Throughout the interior of the country also alarm prevailed, while distress increased from the lack of employment. Numbers were starving in Alexandria, so that the Ministry decided to enrol all strong destitute natives in the army, and employ the remainder on public works. Somewhat late in the day, also Ragheb and Dervish issued appeals to the Europeans to stay and resume business, as Alexandrian commerce was fairly at a standstill. Cargoes lay about on the wharves for any one to take away, many vessels arrived laden and left without discharging their freights, and the whole body of dock labourers, porters, &c., were completely idle. The city itself appeared miserably desolate. Long lines of shops were closed, and few people were about except the soldiers, 11,000 of whom were then occupying the town and neighbourhood. Refusing to allow natives to leave, and threatening to confiscate their property in case of flight, Arabi tried to obtain a levy *en masse* of the population. Having persuaded an Ulema to issue a "fetvah" legalising war with Turkey should she adopt armed intervention, preparations for defence were so energetically pursued that nearly the whole of the remaining Europeans retreated to the harbour, where they took up their abode and transacted business.

THE FORTS ARMING

ALTHOUGH the works on the fortifications had been stopped for some time in deference to the Sultan's orders, Arabi now resumed the operations, arming the forts with all possible despatch. Again Admiral Seymour complained, and the Sultan commanded the immediate cessation of all work, warning the Khédive that the British fleet would certainly bombard the forts if his orders were disregarded. The Ministry at once promised to comply, and indeed the soldiers ceased in the daytime, but worked secretly by night. The electric light from the *Alexandra* speedily disclosed their bad faith, and thoroughly scared the Arabs, who ran away in terror, declaring that a new sun had arisen. The British Admiral, therefore, on July 6th, communicated directly with the Egyptian Ministry, declaring that the military preparations were hostile to the fleet, and that unless they were immediately discontinued he would fire on the forts. Greatly alarmed, the Cabinet immediately sent back a formal assurance that no fresh works had been undertaken. This reply was plainly unsatisfactory, yet the Foreign Consuls wrote to Admiral Seymour inquiring whether he was satisfied with the Ministerial promise, and offering to obtain fresh conciliatory assurances. The Admiral politely acknowledged the offer, pointing out the worthlessness of written promises, and in the mean time took steps for action. The electric light by night and reconnoitring parties by day plainly showed the Egyptians as busy as ever in the forts, and the Admiral decided to permit no further trifling. Summoning a Council of War on board his yacht the *Helicon*, he arranged to despatch an ultimatum to the Egyptian Government after a day's interval to allow all the Europeans to get off safely.

THE EUROPEANS LEAVING ALEXANDRIA

ALL day long on Sunday, the 9th, the exodus continued. The British Consul notified the Foreign Consuls to warn their countrymen, and the English and foreign authorities one by one removed their official property and staffs on board ship. Some few Europeans decided to stay and defend the property of which they were in charge, notably Mr. Cornish, at the Water-works, and the managers of the Anglo-Egyptian Bank and Crédit Lyonnais, who stoutly barricaded their houses. The majority departed, however, and some of the richer natives so far followed their example as to send off their women and jewellery. The Khédive, with praiseworthy courage, refused to leave his country in the hour of danger, although Sir Auckland Colvin and Mr. Cartwright begged him to go on board one of the men-of-war. All arrangements having been completed, the British officials took up their quarters on the P. and O. Co.'s vessel *Tanjore*.

ADMIRAL SEYMOUR'S ULTIMATUM

WAS despatched on the following morning at daybreak, giving the Ministry twenty-four hours to surrender the forts for disarmament, under the penalty of bombardment. The British squadron at once began to prepare for action, while the foreign and merchant vessels left the inner harbour for safer quarters. Their departure was described as most impressive. Under a bright blue sky, with scarcely a breath of wind astir, the war-ships of the various nations steamed out in squadrons, saluting as they passed the Admiral's flag, while the bands played the national airs. All the vessels anchored outside, except the French Squadron, which had strict orders not to join in the conflict, and so went off to Port Said. Meanwhile, the British message did not reach the Ministry at once, for during the morning Ragheb and others came off to the *Invincible* to inquire the reason for the preparations, and were considerably excited on hearing that an ultimatum had been sent. Shortly after, the note was brought to them on board, and they returned ashore to consult. The day passed without sign of submission, much to the evident satisfaction of the British officers and crews, and by 4 A.M. on the 11th inst. the order was given to prepare for action. Whilst the vessels took up their positions the men watched eagerly for signs of life in the forts, as they feared that the Egyptians would bolt without fighting, and on seeing the soldiers grouped in the defences, "a smile of grim satisfaction pervaded all faces." Hopes of the encounter were, however, damped by the appearance of the *Helicon* bearing some Turkish officers, who announced that they had been rowing about all night to find the Admiral. They brought a Ministerial letter offering to dismount the Egyptian guns, but Admiral Seymour replied that the time for negotiations had passed, and gave orders to commence

The Bombardment

ALTHOUGH a full description of the vessels engaged will be found in another column, we may mention that eight ironclads were engaged—the *Inflexible*, *Téméraire*, *Superb*, *Sultan*, *Alexandra*, *Invincible*, *Penelope*, and *Monarch*, representing a strength of 3,539 men and 66 guns, while five gunboats assisted—the *Beacon*, *Bittern*, *Condor*, *Cygnat*, and *Decoy*, these vessels maintaining a continuous chain of attack along the defences. The *Alexandra*, *Sultan*, and *Sutro* being of considerable draught, were posted in deep water in front of the Lighthouse on Ras-el-Tin. The *Inflexible* and *Téméraire* were opposite the mouth of the harbour, the *Monarch*, *Invincible* (with Admiral Seymour on board), and the *Penelope* commanded Fort Mex, while the gunboats at first hovered in the rear, ready to assist at any point. At 6.30 A.M. all was ready, the men were at the guns eager to begin and at 7 A.M. the *Alexandra* was signalled to fire.

THE FIRST SHOT

AFTER a few minutes' delay to see whether the Egyptians would at once give in or would retaliate, the remainder of the fleet opened fire, and a fierce cannonade was poured upon the forts. "A deafening salvo from five 9-inch guns poured from the side of the *Invincible*," says a correspondent on board the flag-ship, "while overhead ten Nordenfeldt guns in the tops swelled the din which burst forth from the ships with a succession of drum-like tappings. The *Monarch* and the *Penelope* had set to work close at hand, and the roar of their heavy guns, the ceaseless rattle of the Gatling and Nordenfeldt machines, and the rush of the *Monarch's* rockets, added to the sound of our own guns, made up a deep and continuous din which was almost bewildering." The Egyptians replied on all sides with unexpected energy, but their aim was bad and their firing virtually powerless against the armoured ships. Nevertheless both officers and men showed remarkable courage under heavy fire, the former setting an admirable example, and jumping up on the parapets to see the effect of their shot. Still the fierce British cannonade soon began to tell, and the first sign was the blowing up by the *Monarch* of a small fort near Mex at 8 A.M., while in another half hour Fort Marsa succumbed. Fort Mex proved a formidable opponent, but by nine o'clock all the guns were silenced, except four heavy pieces, which were well manoeuvred and gave considerable trouble, constantly hitting the vessels and wounding the sailors. The *Téméraire* had unfortunately got aground at the beginning of the action, but as by this time she had been helped off by the *Condor*, she joined the attack, and shortly after the gunboats lent further assistance at the close of a plucky engagement with Fort Marabout.

THE LITTLE "CONDOR" ATTACKING THE BIG FORT

SEEING that the important Marabout batteries were trying to annoy the vessels attacking Fort Mex, Lord Charles Beresford was ordered to take the *Condor* close in shore and single-handed assailed the fort, which was strong enough to have sunk the small craft by a single shot. So cleverly did she manoeuvre that the Admiral signalled, "Well done, *Condor*," the commander's approval being acknowledged by the crew with a cheer for their captain. The *Condor* steamed as close in shore as the shoal would allow, and at last attracted the fire of the batteries, which had previously ignored her. The *Beacon* soon after shared the honours of the action, and while shots fell thick and fast around, not one did any material injury—although the *Condor* had her boats knocked to pieces and was put sadly out of trim, and with the aid of the *Cygnat* and *Bittern*, which came up later, Marabout was soon completely silenced. This feat accomplished, the gunboats joined the fray off Fort Mex, where their small size enabled them to pepper the batteries at close quarters, and thus lend valuable aid. As they passed by the *Invincible* and *Inflexible*, the crews cheered the little vessels heartily, giving groans for Arabi, whom the sailors had christened "Horrible Pasha." Fort Mex was demolished by 11 A.M., but the *Monarch* was despatched to thoroughly level the fort, and it was thought prudent to send ashore to spike the remaining guns.

A LANDING-PARTY FROM THE "INVINCIBLE"

WAS accordingly organised, the service being one of great danger, as it was unknown whether troops were lurking behind the fort, or whether the ruins were mined. Volunteers were plentiful, however, and a party of twelve men went off under the command of Lieutenant Barton R. Bradford, Flag-Lieutenant the Hon. Hedworth Lambton, and Major Tulloch, having to swim ashore through the surf. The *Condor* covered them with her fire, but no one was visible in the fort, where numerous dead bodies lay about, and, after blowing up some of the guns with gun-cotton and spiking the rest, the small party returned afloat in safety.

DESTRUCTION OF THE EASTERN DEFENCES

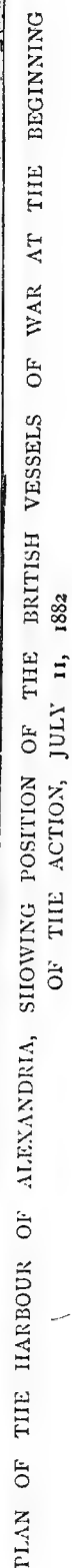
ALTHOUGH the battle was perhaps more eventful on the western side, the other ironclads engaged had been equally successful. The *Inflexible* hovered between both attacking parties, and made some admirable shell practice with her 81-ton guns. Early in the morning the Ras-el-Tin Palace was fired by the shells aimed at the neighbouring fort, which with the Lighthouse batteries became a mere shapeless mass. At 1.30 the *Inflexible* finished off Fort Ada, blowing in the whole face of the fort, and the vessels moved eastwards to complete the destruction of Fort Pharos. By this time the work was done, the forts were ruined, and though Pharos kept up a weak struggle till 4 P.M., the engagement had been practically finished by one o'clock. Still the British ships continued to fire until 5.30 P.M., when the bombardment closed for the day, and the ships set to work to count the cost of their ten hours and a half action. The result had been in every way satisfactory, for the harbour defences were entirely destroyed, while, as we detail below, though most of the British ships were slightly damaged, none had received any serious injury.

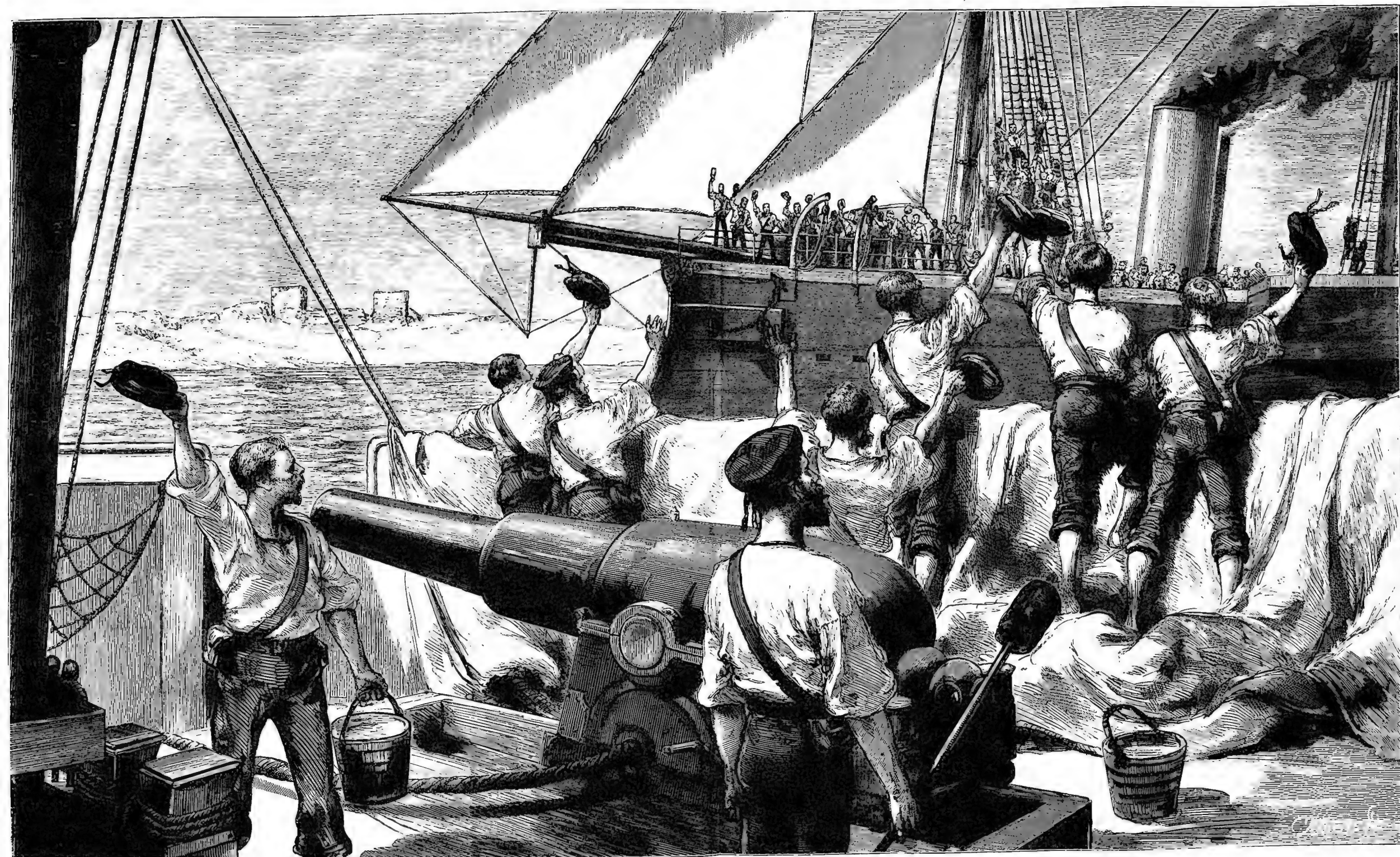
Careful as the vessels were to avoid needless destruction beyond the forts, some outlying parts of the town evidently suffered, and the Palace of Ras-el-Tin was seriously damaged. As the night came on, fires were seen in different parts of the city, and these conflagrations were at first put down to the shells from the squadron, but subsequent events proved that the British fire was not in fault. Otherwise all was dark in the town, Arabi having extinguished all guiding lights. The vessels ranged themselves in a line for the night, watching closely throughout the darkness by help of the electric light for boats and torpedoes. The morning dawned dull and cloudy with a rising heavy swell, and the melancholy aspect of the squadron with their flags half-mast high added to the gloomy appearance.

THE BURIAL OF THE BRITISH DEAD

WAS the first step, and the gunboats collected the five bodies in readiness. Buried with due military honours, the dead were lowered overboard, and the vessels ran up their fighting flags and prepared for fresh action. The high sea, however, was not favourable for fighting operations, and nothing was done till 10 A.M., when, as the enemy was espied in the Hospital batteries, near Fort Ada, the *Inflexible* and *Téméraire* at once opened fire. The Egyptians speedily disappeared, the firing ceased, and shortly after

(Continued on page 20)





"WELL DONE, 'CONDOR!'"—THE MEN OF THE "INVINCIBLE" CHEERING THE "CONDOR" AFTER HER ATTACK ON FORT MARABOUT

A FLAG OF TRUCE

WAS hoisted on the Arsenal, and Lieutenant Lambton was sent with the *Bittern* to hold a parley. Received by the Military Commandant, Toulba Pasha, he demanded the surrender of several forts. Toulba answered that he could not consent until he had communicated with the Khédive and Ministry at Ramleh, but he was told that no time would be allowed for negotiations, and that unless he yielded at once hostilities would recommence. All was quiet, however, till 4 P.M., when the *Invincible* again fired one shot, and a second flag of truce was immediately hoisted. Once more a British gunboat went in shore to negotiate, but this time found no one to treat with, and by the evening it was discovered that Alexandria was completely abandoned, and that the flag of truce had been used merely as a device to get the army safely out of the city. The city was now aglow from a serious conflagration, so a reconnoitring party went ashore and found the population gone, and

ALEXANDRIA IN FLAMES

BEFORE retreating, the soldiers had plundered the houses, had set fire to different parts of the city, and let loose the convicts and Bedouins to pillage at leisure. Until daylight it was hardly safe to enter the city; but early on the morning of the 13th inst., several of the vessels were sent into the harbour, and a force of Marines and Blue-jackets were landed. Alexandria was then in a most appalling condition. Burning houses stopped the way on all sides, dead bodies lay scattered about the streets, and the only signs of life were pillaging Arabs, distracted refugees, and starving animals. The unfortunate survivors had a miserable tale to tell, although, as most of them had barricaded themselves in their houses, they could give little information of the popular effect of the bombardment. The most detailed account was furnished by the manager of the Anglo-Egyptian Bank, M. Goussio, who had bravely remained at his post. He relates that on the night before the bombardment the majority of the population fled, disregarding Arabi's orders to join the army, while the troops were marching down to the forts.

THE OPENING OF THE BOMBARDMENT

CREATED a terrible panic, and while Arabi tried to restore confidence by driving through the town the people continued to rush away, with loud cries and howls, amidst the noise of shells, many of which whistled over the town, and one fell in the Square close to the Bank. Meanwhile a detachment of soldiers paraded the town to see whether the Europeans were communicating with the Fleet, and cut the telegraph and telephone wires. When the firing ceased at five o'clock, the Arabs recovered their spirits, and embraced each other, officers coming in from the front to announce that two British ironclads had been sunk and five disabled. Nevertheless, the exodus continued all night, and next day the soldiers assembled in the Great Square, and attempted vainly to enter the Bank and the Crédit Lyonnais opposite, which was also defended by its manager, M. Monge. Soon after the soldiers began to pillage, under their officers' orders, and breaking into the houses and shops brought out the contents pell-mell to divide the spoil, destroying all they were unable to take away. The plunder completed, they flung the remains back into the houses, and with the aid of petroleum set the place alight, hurrying off to repeat the operation elsewhere. Soon after five the army departed to join Arabi, who, with singular cowardice, had kept scrupulously out of harm's way. At first he remained in Fort Kafarelli, in the centre of the town, but at the first shell retired to the Rosetta Gate, and thence to Kafrawar. Left to the tender mercies of Bedouins and convicts, the town was speedily sacked from end to end, and the conflagrations spread so rapidly that M. Goussio was obliged to make constant sorties during the night to keep the neighbourhood free from incendiaries. Early in the morning he joined forces with the manager of the Crédit Lyonnais, where several European families had taken refuge, and the whole party, numbering 105, marched down to the harbour, the pillagers being too busy to molest them, and were taken off by the fleet. Less fortunate than these survivors, a number of Europeans and native Christians were massacred, both by the soldiery and the marauders, and it is doubtful whether the loss of life will ever be accurately ascertained, as many bodies lie crushed under the calcined ruins. Undeterred by the arrival of the British, the incendiaries and pillagers continued their work, and it was found necessary to adopt the strongest measures to restore order. The streets were regularly patrolled by a naval police force organised by Lord Charles Beresford, with strict injunctions to severely punish looting, and by as many Marines and Blue-jackets as could be spared from the fleet, under the command of Captain Fisher, of the *Inflexible*, the Americans contributing a small body of Marines to assist as police.

THE STATE OF ALEXANDRIA

WAS most terrible. The European quarter was a mere wreck, and those buildings still standing had been completely pillaged, while it was difficult to pick a way over the smouldering ruins and amidst the danger of falling houses. The handsome Great Square was such a mass of ruins that a resident who had known the city for seventeen years could not find the openings of the different streets, and could only guess his position by the aid of the statue of Mehemet Ali, which stood intact amidst the glow. At first the British Consulate and Telegraph Office were found safe, but they were subsequently burned, while most of the other Consulates had disappeared. The English, Greek, and Catholic Churches were untouched, as well as the Bourse and several banks, and both the European and the German Hospitals. In the latter the Sisters behaved most courageously, keeping to their post, although the mob burst in upon them, and compelled them to pull down the German flag which had been hoisted for their protection. Fortunately they were not further molested, although when the British entered they were forced to shift their quarters, with their invalids, to the German gunboat, as the hospital was surrounded by British troops and guns in readiness to repel any attack from Arabi. The native hospital was left to itself, and a British surgeon found the patients with but one attendant, several having died from want, and all being in a miserable state from starvation and lack of attention to their wounds. As the British patrolled the city in reconnoitring parties they met a few natives, who ostentatiously showed either a white rag or the red band on the arm denoting allegiance to the Khédive, and paid the foreigners every sign of respect. The streets, however, were mainly deserted, the very dogs had disappeared, and the only sound was the mewing of famished cats, which seemed to haunt every house. Piles of rubbish and plunder filled up the footway, and the ruins were so inflammable that it was sufficient to throw a burning stick across the road to kindle a fresh conflagration. Owing to this, many of the buildings which had escaped the first fires, were subsequently destroyed. All Thursday night and during the next day the fires continued, partly through the industry of the incendiaries, and the British were obliged to punish the marauders severely. Those caught in the act of incendiarism were shot, pillagers were flogged, and their hair cut on one side of the head to provide for future recognition. It was curious, by-the-bye, to see how little the thieves understood the value of what they were stealing. One man had his shirt filled with fragments of fragile glass, and another was carrying off an old broken pair of scales. Little by little the people ventured out, finding that the British solely intended to restore order. Most of the poor inhabitants were starving, and when offered money replied that it could not buy bread when none was to be found. Indeed it

is hardly possible to estimate the distress in the city, or even the ruin to those hitherto prosperous Europeans who have lost all by the results of the bombardment. Even so far afield as Ramleh the houses have been looted, and as many of the wealthy English had houses in the suburb this loss is considerable.

On assuming the protection of Alexandria the British went round the demolished forts and spiked the remaining guns, finding the batteries mere heaps of crumbling masonry, and filled with dead bodies. Marines were quartered at all gates, and the town was divided into districts under guards, the men working with the utmost zeal. Houses were blown down to prevent the progress of the flames, some of the loyal natives being pressed into this service to provide them with food and occupation, while the precaution was taken to deprive everybody of any weapon, even a stick. Soon the shops began to re-open, and at the present time some semblance of order and business is maintained in the city, notwithstanding alarm as to Arabi's movements, and the dread of riots in Cairo and other parts of the country. For a short time the naval force on shore was very insufficient to resist attack, but at the beginning of last week the temporary garrison was reinforced by some 6,000 British troops, thus enabling the marines and Blue-jackets to return to their vessels.

THE FATE OF THE KHEDIVE

HAD given much anxiety during the bombardment and subsequent disastrous events, as it was feared that Tewfik's courageous conduct might cost him his life. Accompanied by Dervish, who seems to have shown equal pluck, he retired to Ramleh during the bombardment, where the ill success of the Egyptians placed him in great danger. Arabi sent a body of troops to surround the Palace and kill Tewfik, but on the news of the army's retreat this guard was so demoralised that the Khédive and Dervish managed to temporise with them. Admiral Seymour was then communicated with, and as he sent the *Condor* to keep the men in check, Tewfik and the Turkish Commissioner escaped—and took refuge in the ruined Ras-el-Tin Palace, where their safety was ensured by a British guard. Signs of the bombardment are visible everywhere in the Palace, the glasses are shattered, and bullets stick in the wall, while the English sailors are quartered in the magnificent apartments.

The Bombarding Fleet

GREAT as was the interest taken by the general public in the accounts of the bombardment, it was equalled if not excelled by that of military and naval scientists who looked upon the artillery duel from a purely professional and technical point of view, a fact which is hardly to be wondered at considering that the action is the first of its kind which has taken place since the bombardment of Sebastopol, when guns and ships were of a very different type and calibre. The accounts which have as yet come to hand are not of a very detailed or critical character, a fact which is mainly due to the density of the smoke, which made it impossible to do more than guess at the direction and effect of each shot, but the tremendous destructive power of monster artillery upon earthworks and fortifications was made plain, and whatever has yet to be told respecting the ships and guns, the reports of the behaviour of the crews of the various vessels are indisputable proofs that the modern British sailor is as cool under fire and as eager to get at the enemy as were ever his predecessors in the olden time, before the wooden walls of Old England had given place to "iron pots" and "kettles of steam." The men worked the guns with eagerness and enthusiasm, the crews of each vessel cheering the others whenever they chanced to come within hail, and exhibiting the liveliest anxiety as to the effect of each shot, which was only observable from aloft, and not always thence, in consequence of the smoke. Every hit was hailed with cheers and hand-clapping, whilst the luckless gunners whose aim proved untrue were the victims of good-humoured chaff. On board the *Invincible* a young midshipman named Hardy stationed himself in the main-top, and signalled the effect of each shot to the officers on deck. On the same vessel a young sailor who was wounded in the leg hopped about immediately after amputation had been performed, exhibiting the severed limb to his comrades; whilst on board the *Alexandra* a gallant act was performed by Gunner Harding, who seized a live shell which came through upon the main deck, and coolly carried it to a bucket of water in which he immersed it to extinguish the fuse. He will, probably, be recommended for the Victoria Cross.

Admiral Seymour's disposition of the vessels for the attack seems to be generally regarded as the best possible under the existing conditions, and the accounts agree in describing the fire of the ship as accurate and effective. The damage sustained by the ships is trifling, compared with what it might have been had the Egyptian gunners been more skilful, whilst if torpedoes had been employed against them, the result would in all probability have been very serious. Happily for us this was conspicuous by its absence. The total number of casualties on board the fleet were six killed (including Lieutenant Jackson of the *Inflexible*, who died of his wounds on Sunday last) and twenty-six wounded, a list which may be looked upon as exceedingly light.

According to the calculated force and resistance of guns and armour-plates respectively, the 9-inch rifle guns of the forts ought to have been capable of piercing the armour of all the ships engaged, with the exception of the *Inflexible*, but they failed to do so; a result which, the *Army and Navy Gazette* says: "Will surprise the theorists, but it is only what really practical men have long ago urged. The official trials being, in fact, no trials at all of the practical power of resistance of plates to penetration, as they were then placed in an exact right angle to the guns, whereas in action shots would almost never strike at the right angle; and they were fixed rigidly and backed so solidly as to prevent the slightest give, whilst in practice the give would be considerable; the vessel would bodily yield to the strokes of a very heavy shot, and the framework would also yield somewhat." It is stated that in no single instance was the armour of any of the ships penetrated by the enemy's shots, although, according to one account, that of the *Superb* was pierced in one place.

The following details with regard to the various ships engaged may prove interesting:—The *Alexandra*, which is the Flag Ship of the Mediterranean Fleet, although during the bombardment Admiral Sir B. Seymour's flag was borne by the *Invincible*, is a double-screw, two-decked iron ship, 9,490 tons, 8,610 horse-power, being armour-plated from 8 to 12 inches in thickness. She carries 25-ton guns, and ten 18-ton, four of which can fire right ahead and two right astern, whilst all can be employed for broadside fire. Her crew numbers 671, and she is commanded by Captain Charles F. Hotham; the Hon. Hedworth Lambton being Flag-Lieutenant. She is said to have been as much knocked about as any of the fleet, receiving some twenty-five shots in her hull, and several shells, one of which burst in the commander's cabin, whilst another passed right through the captain's cabin, and others damaged the funnel, passed through the gun room, and smashed the steam launch. She is also stated to have two of her guns disabled by "splitting"—accidents which may either have resulted from a blow of a hostile shot, or a premature explosion of the charge. Her casualties were one man killed and three wounded.

The *Inflexible*, Captain John A. Fisher, is a double screw iron ship with armour sixteen to twenty-four inches thick, her tonnage being 11,400, and horse-power 8,480. She is divided into 135 watertight compartments, and has two turrets placed *en echelon* within the walls of a central citadel in which are mounted four

monster guns of eighty-one tons each, which are worked by hydraulic power, and throw shells of 1,700 lbs. weight, whilst she is also armed with a powerful ram, and is pierced for Whitehead torpedoes. The number of her crew is 349. Her loss was one killed and two wounded, one of the latter being Lieutenant Francis Sydney Jackson, who has since died. He joined the Royal Navy in 1866 as a cadet, and was promoted midshipman in 1861, Sub-Lieutenant in 1872, and Lieutenant in 1876.

The *Téméraire*, Captain Henry F. Nicholson, which with the *Inflexible* carried off the chief honours of the fight, is a vessel of 8,540 tons, 7,700 horse-power, with armour eight to ten inches thick. She carries four 18-ton, and four 25-ton guns, six of which are placed in a double central battery on the main deck, whilst the other two are mounted on the disappearing principle in turrets fore and aft with open tops. She also carries Whitehead and Harvey torpedoes, and has a ram which projects 8 feet beyond her bow. Her crew numbers 534, and she appears to have had no casualties.

The *Invincible*, Captain Robert H. M. Molyneux, 6,010 tons, 4,830 horse-power, has armour 6 to 8 inches thick, and carries fourteen 12-ton guns. She was struck many times, but only six shots penetrated the unarmoured portion of the vessel, scattering splinters in all directions. Of her crew of 450 none were killed, but a midshipman and five men were wounded.

The *Sultan*, Captain Walter J. Hunt-Grubbe, 9,290 tons, 7,720 horse-power, 10-inch to 12-inch armour, carries eight 18-ton and four 12-ton guns. She was hit several times, and one report says that her mainmast was seriously injured, while of her crew of 400 two were killed and eight wounded.

The *Superb*, Captain Thomas Le Hunter Warde, 9,100 tons, 6,580 horse-power, mounting sixteen guns, and protected by armour of 10 to 12 inches, which, according to one account, was pierced, had a crew of 620, of whom one was killed and one wounded. She was built on the Thames in 1878 for the Turkish Government, but stopped as contraband of war, and subsequently purchased for the British Navy.

The *Monarch*, Captain Henry Fairfax, C.B., 8,320 tons, 7,840 horse-power, has armour of 8 inches to 10 inches, and seven guns, four of which are 25-tonners. She was not hit once, probably owing to her being able to keep on the move, but her gun practice is spoken of as inferior to that of the *Invincible*.

The *Penelope*, Captain St. George C. D'Arcy-Irvine, 4,470 tons, 4,700 horse-power 5-inch to 6-inch armour, mounting eleven 12-ton guns, was struck five times, and had eight men killed, and one gun disabled.

The five gunboats—*Beacon*, four guns, Commander Hand; *Bittern*, three guns, Commander Brand; *Cygnets*, four guns, Commander Ryder; *Condor*, three guns, Commander Lord Charles Beresford (our special artist, Mr. F. Villiers, was on board this vessel during the bombardment); and *Decoy*, four guns, Commander Boldero, seem to have altogether escaped injury, although heavy missiles fell thick around them, their diminutive size being naturally their best protection. All the thirteen vessels were fully manned, and in addition to their heavy armament most of them were furnished with machine guns of the Nordenfeldt and Gatling patterns.—We have gathered some of the above details from the July edition of the "Royal Navy List" (Witherby and Co., 74, Cornhill) which is the only publication containing a complete record of the war-services of the Naval and Marine Officers who have distinguished themselves in the operations in Egypt. We should also state that some of our engravings of views in Alexandria are from photographs by Fiorillo, Alexandria.

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GREAT ANNUAL SUMMER SALE NOW PROCEEDING. All summer and surplus stock reduced; also large parcels of

HIGH-CLASS GOODS bought at the close of the season on very advantageous terms, including
300 pieces of Check Satins
in all the New Shades,
rs. 9d. per Yard.
Usual price 2s. 11d.
300 Pieces of New Figure Silks,
in Quiet and Oriental Colourings,
rs. 6d., 1s. 11d., and 2s. 6d. per Yard.

THE STOCK OF LADIES' and CHILDREN'S OUTFITTING of Misses F. and A. Spickett, of 104, Regent Street (retiring from business) will be on sale at half-price.

PETER ROBINSON, Oxford STREET, W.

THE STOCK of Mr. P. L. Kings-BURY, of 80, 82, 84, 90, and 92, Fulham Road, consisting of
DRESSES, MANTLES, COSTUMES, SILKS, DRAPERY, HOSIERY, GLOVES, LACE, TRIMMINGS, &c.,
NOW ON SALE.
The above Stock has been bought of the assignees of the estate for cash, at a discount of 54 per cent. off cost price, and is included in the Great Annual Sale now proceeding at Oxford Street and Regent Street.
This is an opportunity of purchasing all descriptions of General Drapery Goods at an average price of less than one-half.
The stock of Fancy Wools, Toys, and Pictures will be reserved for future sale, of which notice will be given.

THE NEW SALOON (lately a portion of the London Crystal Palace Bazaar) is NOW OPEN, with a grand collection of

COSTUMES in Silk, Velvet, Cashmere, Velveteen, and other materials for dinner, promenade, evening, lawn tennis, and ordinary wear, all greatly reduced in price.
Write for circular of particulars to

PETER ROBINSON, Oxford STREET, LONDON.

HENRY GLAVE'S SUMMER CLEARANCE SALE
WILL BE CONTINUED THIS MONTH, including the STOCK of Mr. F. BREWER, of Anerley Hill, Upper Norwood.
CATALOGUES SENT POST FREE.

WE HAVE JUST SECURED AT A SLIGHT COMMISSION
50 PIECES
BLACK BROCADED SILKS,
Which we shall offer during the SALE at the low fixed price of
3s. 6d. per yard.
22 inches wide.

These Goods are quite perfect, and the styles and designs quite new.
Patterns of this lot sent post free.

HENRY GLAVE,
80, 82, 84, 86, 88, NEW OXFORD STREET, W.C.

PETER ROBINSON, COURT AND GENERAL MOURNING WAREHOUSE, REGENT STREET.

"FAMILY BEREAVEMENTS."
Upon Receipt of Letters or Telegram Makers and MILLINERS TRAVEL to ALL PARTS OF THE COUNTRY (no matter the distance. FREE OF EXPENSE TO PURCHASERS, with Dresses, Mantles, Millinery, and a full assortment of MADE-UP ARTICLES of the best and most suitable description. Also materials by the Yard, and supplied at the same VERY REASONABLE PRICES as if purchased at the Warehouse in "REGENT STREET."

Mourning for Servants at unexceptionally low rates, at a great saving to large or small families.
Funerals Conducted in Town or Country at Stated Charges.
Address 256 to 262, Regent Street, London.
PETER ROBINSON'S.

THE BEST CRAPES,
THAT WILL NOT SPOT WITH RAIN.
Special qualities finished by the manufacturer in this desirable manner solely to the order of PETER ROBINSON.
Good qualities from 5s. 6d. to 12s. 9d. per yard. Others, not finished by this process, from 1s. 6d. to 4s. 6d.
PETER ROBINSON, Mourning Warehouse, 256 to 262, Regent Street, London, W.

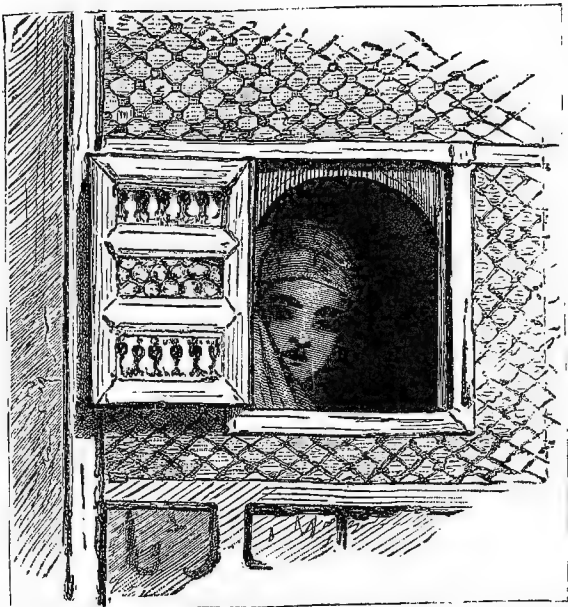
SUPERIOR BRITISH MANUFACTURE.
Egerton Burnett's
Pure Wool Best Dye Black Serges, as supplied by him for Court Mourning, are in great demand. A variety of qualities from 1s. 24d. to 4s. 6d. per yard. Ladies who have a preference for black should write for patterns direct to
EGERTON BURNETT, Woollen Warehouse, Wellington, Somerset.

D'ALMAINE'S PIANOS Half-price.
—In consequence of a change of partnership the whole of this splendid stock (perfected with all the improvements of the day, viz., steel frame, overstrung, trichord throughout, check-action, &c.), is now offered at half-price by this long-standing firm of 100 years' reputation, and in order to effect a speedy sale the easiest terms arranged, with ten years' warranty. Trichord Cottages, from hire, &c., £10 to £12.
Class 0, £14 Class 1, £20 Class 2, £26 Class 3, £32 Class 4, £38 Class 5, £44 Class 6, £50 Class 7, £56 Class 8, £62 Class 9, £68 Class 10, £74 Class 11, £80 Class 12, £86 Class 13, £92 Class 14, £98 Class 15, £104 Class 16, £110 Class 17, £116 Class 18, £122 Class 19, £128 Class 20, £134 Class 21, £140 Class 22, £146 Class 23, £152 Class 24, £158 Class 25, £164 Class 26, £170 Class 27, £176 Class 28, £182 Class 29, £188 Class 30, £194 Class 31, £200 Class 32, £206 Class 33, £212 Class 34, £218 Class 35, £224 Class 36, £230 Class 37, £236 Class 38, £242 Class 39, £248 Class 40, £254 Class 41, £260 Class 42, £266 Class 43, £272 Class 44, £278 Class 45, £284 Class 46, £290 Class 47, £296 Class 48, £302 Class 49, £308 Class 50, £314 Class 51, £320 Class 52, £326 Class 53, £332 Class 54, £338 Class 55, £344 Class 56, £350 Class 57, £356 Class 58, £362 Class 59, £368 Class 60, £374 Class 61, £380 Class 62, £386 Class 63, £392 Class 64, £398 Class 65, £404 Class 66, £410 Class 67, £416 Class 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THE BOMBARDMENT OF ALEXANDRIA



DANCING APE



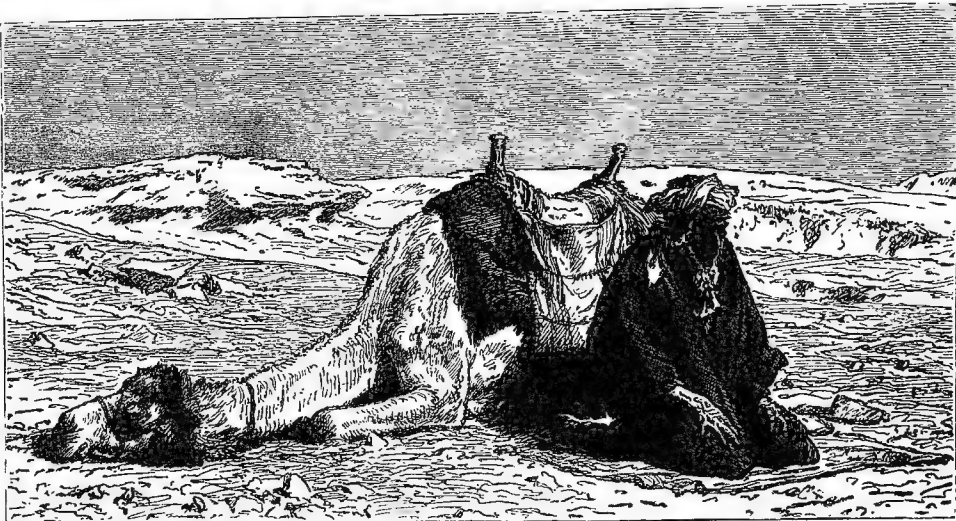
A WINDOW OF THE HAREM



SELLER OF DATE BREAD



ALEXANDRIAN LADY WITH HER BLACK ATTENDANT



A BEDOUIN AT MORNING PRAYER



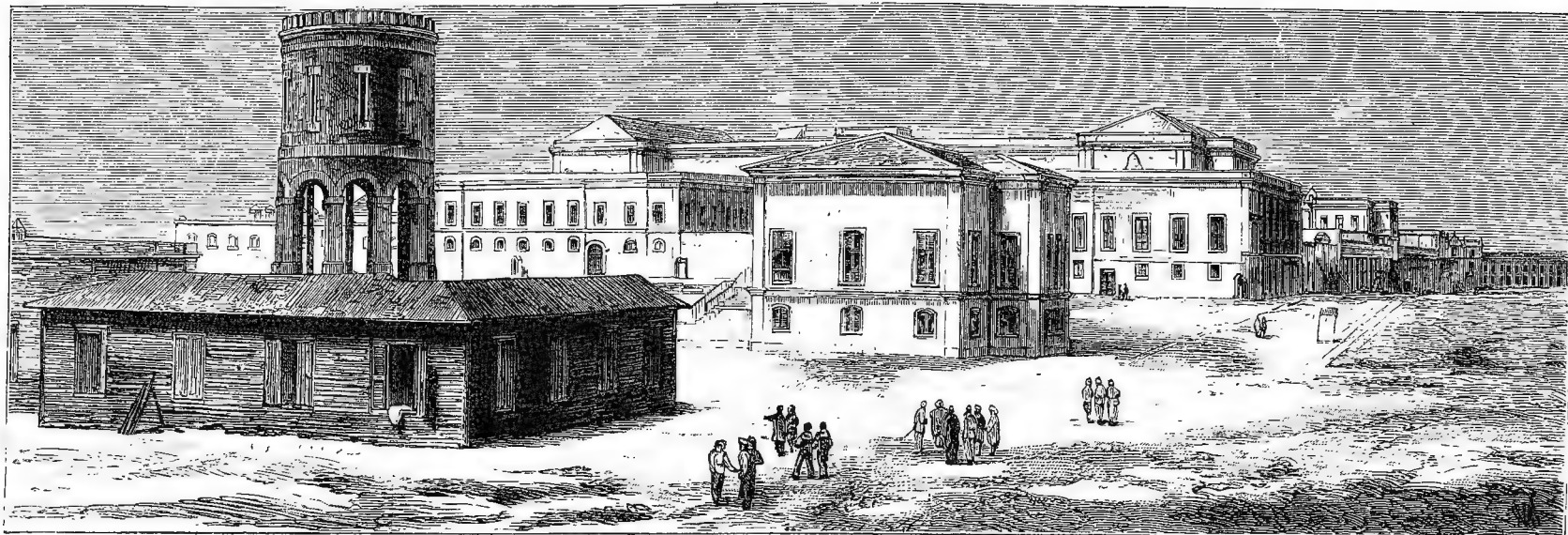
A DERVISH EATING SCORPIONS



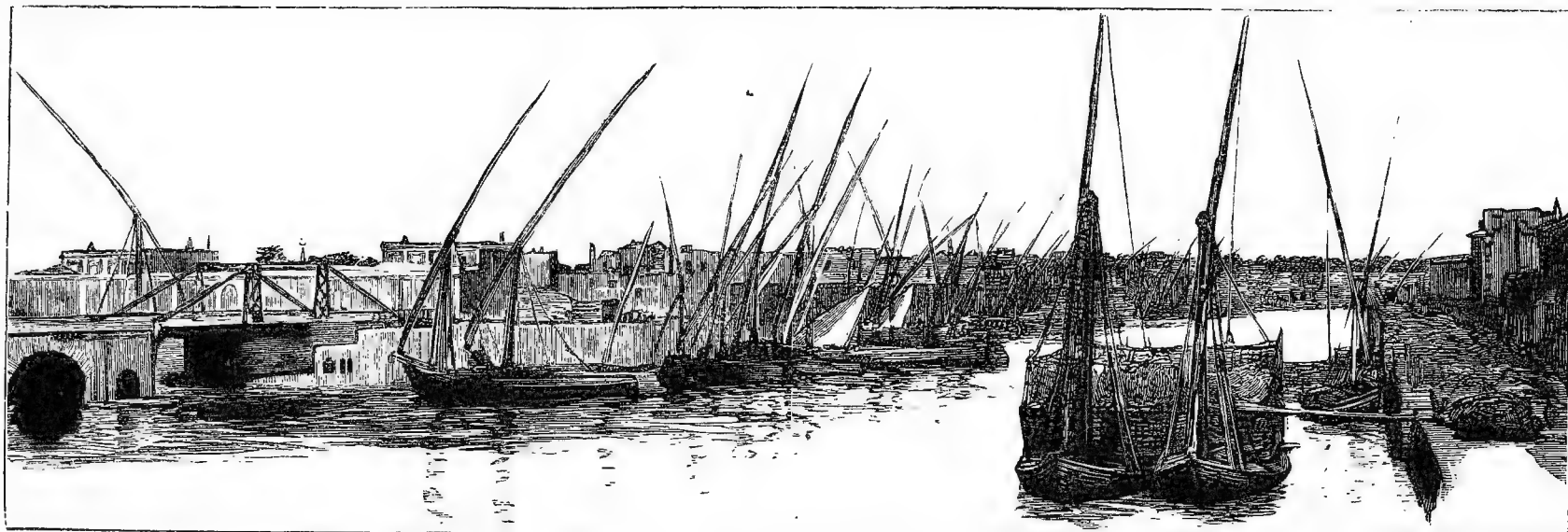
A SAIS OR RUNNING FOOTMAN



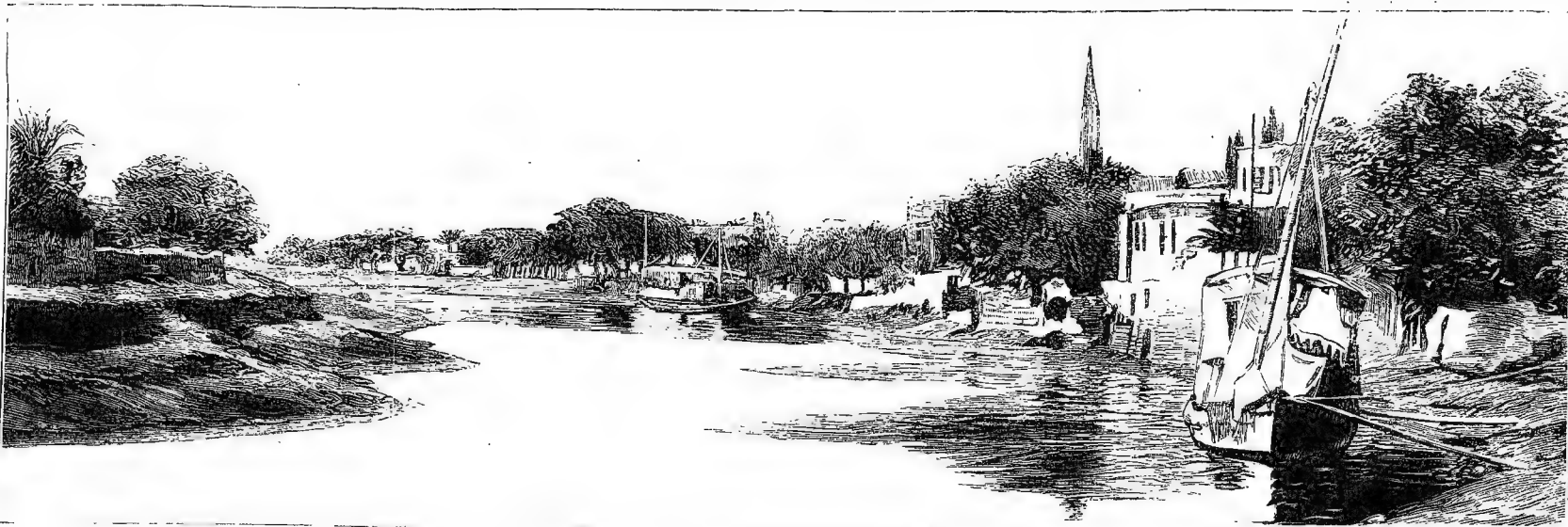
THE NEW PORT, ALEXANDRIA



MUSTAPHA PASHA STATION, ON THE WAY TO RAMLEH



ENTRANCE TO THE MAHMOUDIYEH CANAL, ALEXANDRIA



VIEW ON THE MAHMOUDIYEH CANAL, ALEXANDRIA

The Subscription Lists WILL BE CLOSED on or before MONDAY, 31st July, for London and the Country.
FIVE PER CENT. REAL PROPERTY INVESTMENT, REDEEMABLE WITH 27 PER CENT. BONUS.

CASINO MUNICIPAL DE LA VILLE DE NICE

SOCIÉTÉ ANONYME DULY INCORPORATED IN FRANCE

(Under French Companies' Law of July, 1867).

SHARE CAPITAL, £150,000 (4,000,000 francs). All Subscribed and Fully Paid Up.

SUBVENTIONS HAVE BEEN VOTED TO THE COMPANY:—

1. By the Town Council of Nice, annually, francs 85,000 for 80 Years, Total 6,800,000 Francs.
2. By the Town Council of Hyères, annually, francs 12,000 do do 960,000 Francs.

AUTHORISED DEBENTURE CAPITAL, £440,000 (11,000,000 Francs), BEARING 4 PER CENT. INTEREST, OF WHICH £190,000 HAS ALREADY BEEN PUBLICLY SUBSCRIBED ABROAD.

ISSUE OF £250,000 DEBENTURES TO BEARER

(BALANCE OF THE ABOVE) IN 12,500 BONDS OF £20 EACH (Francs 500).

Messrs. MADDISON and CO. are Authorised to Offer for PUBLIC SUBSCRIPTION the above 12,500 Debentures (of £20 each) at £15 10s. per Debenture payable:—

£1 0 0	On Application,
£7 0 0	On Allotment,
£7 10 0	One Month after Allotment.
£15 10 0	

Or the Balance of £14 10s. may be paid up in full on Allotment, under discount at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum.

The Debentures are Redeemable at Par, by Annual Drawings spread over a period of 80 Years, and the next Drawing will take place on the 1st of September, 1882.

Interest payable in London, at the Bankers of the Company, in sterling at 16s. per annum per Debenture, or in Paris, at the Offices of the Company, at 20 francs per annum, at Holder's Option, Half-yearly Coupons of 8 shillings (francs 10) being attached, payable 1st April and 1st October in each year.

At the price of issue the return to the Investor will exceed 5 per cent. per annum exclusive of the benefit derived from the Annual Drawings.

THE DIRECTORS OF THE COMPANY ARE:
MM. le COMTE de TOCQUEVILLE, President, Proprietor, Paris.
de PUYMORY, Proprietor, Paris.
le BARON de CLAMECY, Proprietor, Chevalier de la Legion d'Honneur, Paris.
le BARON de CASTILLON, Proprietor, Paris.

MM. le COMTE D'ADHEMAR de CRANSAC, Chevalier de la Legion d'Honneur, Proprietor, Paris and Nice.
le MARQUIS de la BIGNE, Proprietor, Paris.
G. de MONTFUMAT, Proprietor, Paris.

SOLICITORS IN LONDON.

MESSRS. NEWMAN, STRETTON, HILLIARD, and WILLINS, 75, Cornhill, London, E.C.

BANKERS IN LONDON.

LONDON and SOUTH WESTERN BANK, Limited, 7, Fenchurch Street, London, E.C., and BRANCHES.
OFFICES OF THE COMPANY.—49, Rue Taitbout, Paris.

LONDON AGENCY: 31, LOMBARD STREET, LONDON, E.C.

PROSPECTUS.

The Concession of the Casinos both at Nice and Hyères are exclusive; no similar Institution is in existence elsewhere, and both Municipalities are bound by their contracts not to authorise or permit any similar Institution during the period of 80 years, for which this Company's concession is granted. Under the laws of France gambling of any kind is prohibited.

Nice has now become so well-known in England as the winter resort of thousands of English and French, who yearly flock southward in search of a milder climate, that its institutions practically possess an international character; and it is believed that the present investment will commend itself to the notice of the large numbers of English investors acquainted with Nice, by whom its prospects of large and certain profits will at once be recognised.

The Company called "La Société Anonyme du Casino Municipal de la Ville de Nice" was duly incorporated in France in the year 1881, according to the Law of July, 1867, with the object of covering over the River Paillon at Nice, and utilising the land thus reclaimed for the construction of a Municipal Casino, and for building purposes, and with the further object of acquiring land and erecting public and other buildings in other towns.

For this purpose the Municipality of Nice has granted a subvention of 6,800,000 francs, payable by an annuity of 85,000 francs for eighty years, and the exclusive right for eighty years to carry on the "Casino Municipal."

The erection of the "Casino de Nice," and the covering over of the River Paillon are being actively proceeded with according to plans which have been accepted by the public authorities.

The Contracts for its erection and fitting up (for the due performance of which substantial guarantees have been provided) stipulate (under daily penalties in case of default) for its completion in December next.

This Casino will be superior to any similar establishment now existing on the Continent, and will be the largest in the world, covering an area of more than 10,000 square metres.

The Casino d'Hyères will, under similar guaranteed contracts for its construction, be completed in December, 1883.

The land acquired by the Company in pursuance of the concession granted by the Municipality of Hyères comprises 40,000 square metres between the town and the Jardin d'Acclimatation, and includes the Hotel de Parc, one of the best and most frequented Hotels in the town, now doing a good business.

About 20,000 metres of the land are devoted to the Casino and its grounds and annexes. The remainder is intended to be re-sold at a much enhanced price, consequent upon its proximity to the Casino.

The subventions have been duly and legally granted by the Municipalities of Nice and Hyères, and are an obligatory charge upon those respective towns.

SECURITY.

The Debenture Council is, and by the resolution of the Board passed on the 14th June last, will remain the only charge on the whole of the freehold other property of the Company, including the Casinos, Shops, Hotel, and other buildings, occupying about 50,000 square metres, or nearly 12½ acres of ground in the very best part of the towns of Nice and Hyères, as well as the annual subvention from their Municipalities, viz.:—

Nice	85,000 francs per annum for 80 years.
Hyères	12,000 francs per annum for 80 years.

Besides the guarantees mentioned, the payment of the INTEREST and BONDS DRAWN for THREE YEARS from date of this issue will be secured by a CASH DEPOSIT with the well-known CREDIT FONCIER OF FRANCE, whose Bons de Caisse (Deposit Note), payable on the due dates of the next six half-yearly Coupons, will be deposited in the hands of the LONDON and SOUTH-WESTERN BANK (Limited), 7, Fenchurch Street, London, E.C., thus making them practically an undoubted security, the period so provided for being greatly in excess of what is necessary to admit of both Casinos getting into full operation, and the Company into full receipt of its revenues.

THE REVENUE OF THE COMPANY.

Annual Subventions from the Municipalities of Nice and Hyères, as above	Francs. 97,000
Annual Rents receivable under the various Leases already entered into for the Buffets and Restaurants, Cercle Massena, Hotel du Parc, Cafés, Shops, Advertising Spaces, &c	612,000
	709,000
Less sum required for the Annual Interest and Drawings in the Total Debenture Capital	459,955
Surplus Balance	249,045

Thus it will be seen that the present RENTS and SUBVENTIONS ALONE exceed by nearly £10,000 the requirements for the service of the Debentures, without taking into account the gradual increase in rent as the terms for which the leases granted progress, nor of the profits arising from the working of the Casino, which are estimated at more than £40,000 per annum (1,000,000 francs).

As regards the rate of interest and redemption, and the nature of the security, the Debentures resemble the "Obligations Communales," issued by the Credit Foncier of France, at 480 francs (£19 4s.) per Debenture, which form one of the standard investments of that country.

So large a part of the annual revenue of the Company being assured by the Municipal subventions, and by rents receivable under long leases, the Debentures now offered for subscription are exceptionally secured, and yield to the subscriber not only a Bonus profit of about 27 per cent., or £4 10s. per Debenture when redeemed, but in the mean time an interest of more than 5 per cent. per annum upon the amount invested, the whole being fully secured upon Municipal subventions and landed property of ample value.

In addition to a positive security, these Debentures present to English Investors the following advantages not ordinarily possessed by mortgages upon real property:—

1. Facility of realisation, by reason of the Debentures being for the comparatively small sums of £20 each, to bearer, transferable by mere delivery, without registration or other formality.
2. Easy collection of interest by means of the half-yearly Interest coupons attached to each Debenture, which are payable in London or Paris at holder's option.
3. Interest at more than 5 per cent. per annum, a much higher rate than can now be obtained upon good mortgage investments in England.
4. The Bonus of £4 10s. per Debenture, or £20 for every £15 10s. invested when each Debenture is drawn for redemption.

The Debentures will be delivered to the subscribers upon payment of the full amount of £15 10s. per Debenture. Failure to pay any instalments will render previous payments liable to forfeiture.

The formalities in the formation of the Company and the issue of the Bonds have all been duly and properly fulfilled. This question has been referred to an independent French Counsel of Eminence, M. Choppin d'Arnouville, who has certified that everything is in order in this respect.

The Statutes of the Company, copies of the concessions, and plans and drawings of the properties and buildings, with authenticated translations of the several leases, can be inspected at the Offices of Messrs. Newman, Stretton, Hilliard, and Willins, 75, Cornhill, London, E.C., Solicitors.

Prospectuses, with Forms of Application for Debentures, may be obtained of the London Agents, 31, Lombard Street, London, E.C.

20th July, 1882.

CASINO MUNICIPAL DE LA VILLE DE NICE.

SOCIÉTÉ ANONYME DULY INCORPORATED IN FRANCE.

FORM OF APPLICATION FOR DEBENTURES TO BEARER OF £20 EACH (500 FRANCS).

Bearing 16 Shillings (20 Francs) Interest per Annum, at the Price of £15 10s. per Debenture.

ISSUE OF £250,000 DEBENTURES

NO. _____

TO THE LONDON AND SOUTH-WESTERN BANK (Limited), No. 7, FENCHURCH STREET, LONDON, E.C.

I herewith remit the sum of £ _____, being a Deposit of £1 per Debenture upon _____ Debentures of the Société Anonyme Casino Municipal de la Ville de Nice, for which number of Debentures I hereby apply, and I hereby agree to accept the same or any less number, and to make the remaining payments of £14 10s. per Debenture in accordance with the Prospectus dated the 20th July, 1882.

Name in Full _____

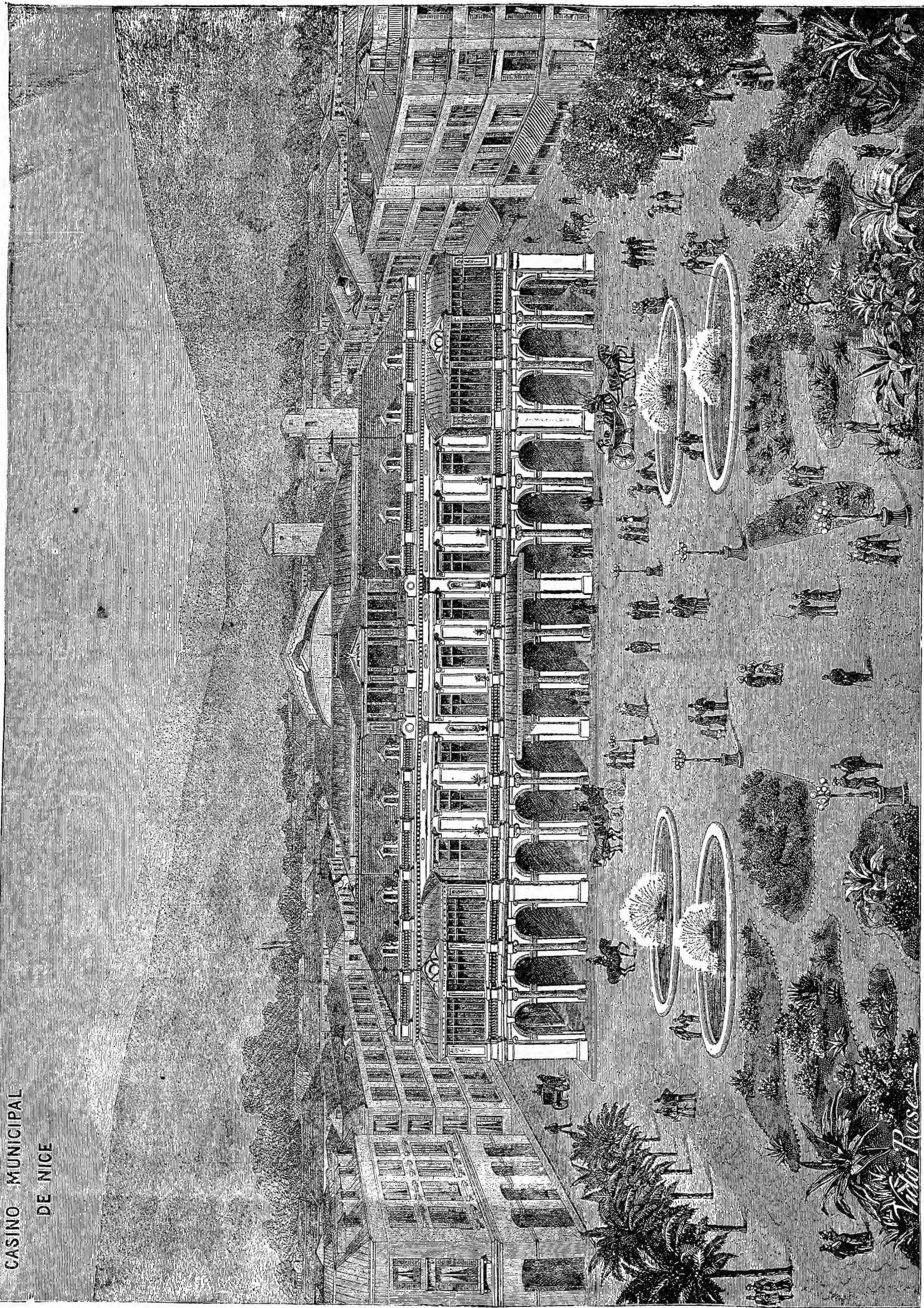
Occupation _____

Address _____

Signature _____

Date _____ July, 1882.

CASINO MUNICIPAL
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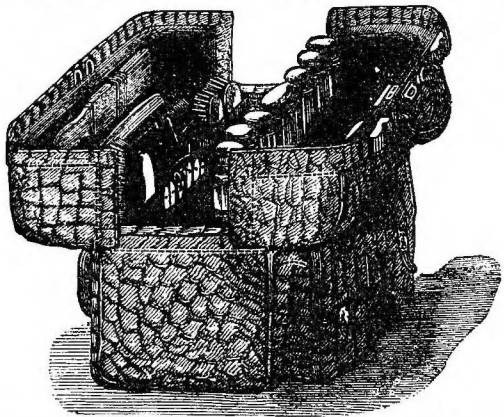


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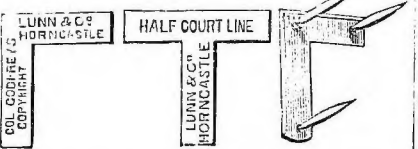
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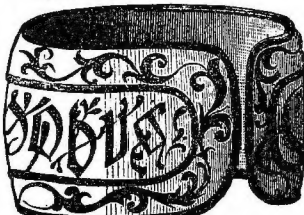
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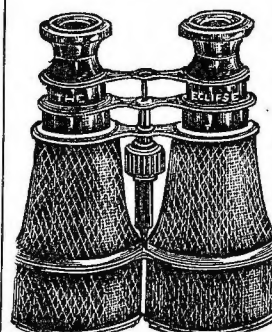


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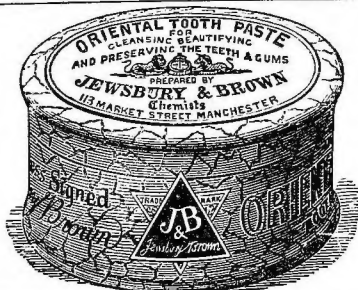


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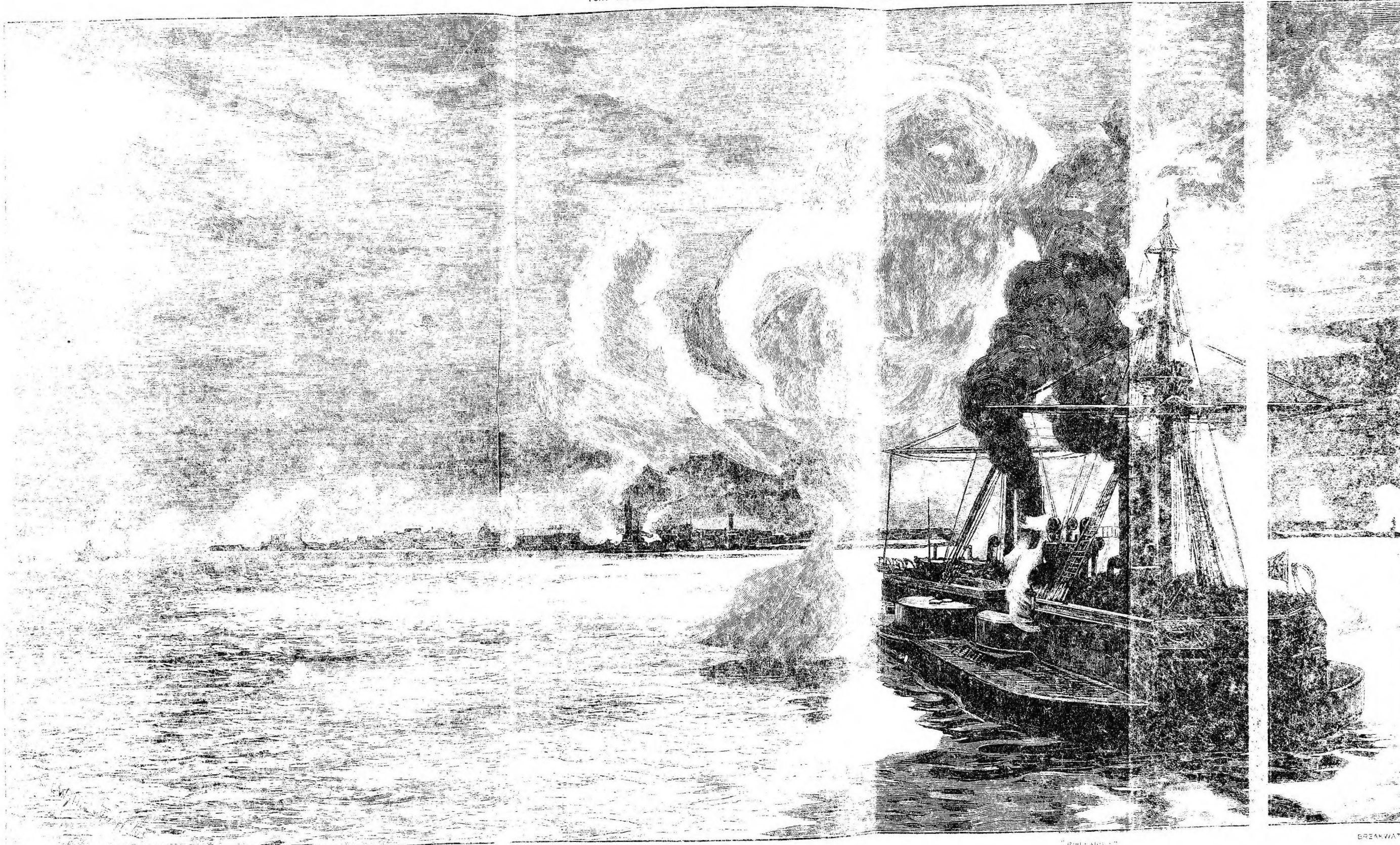
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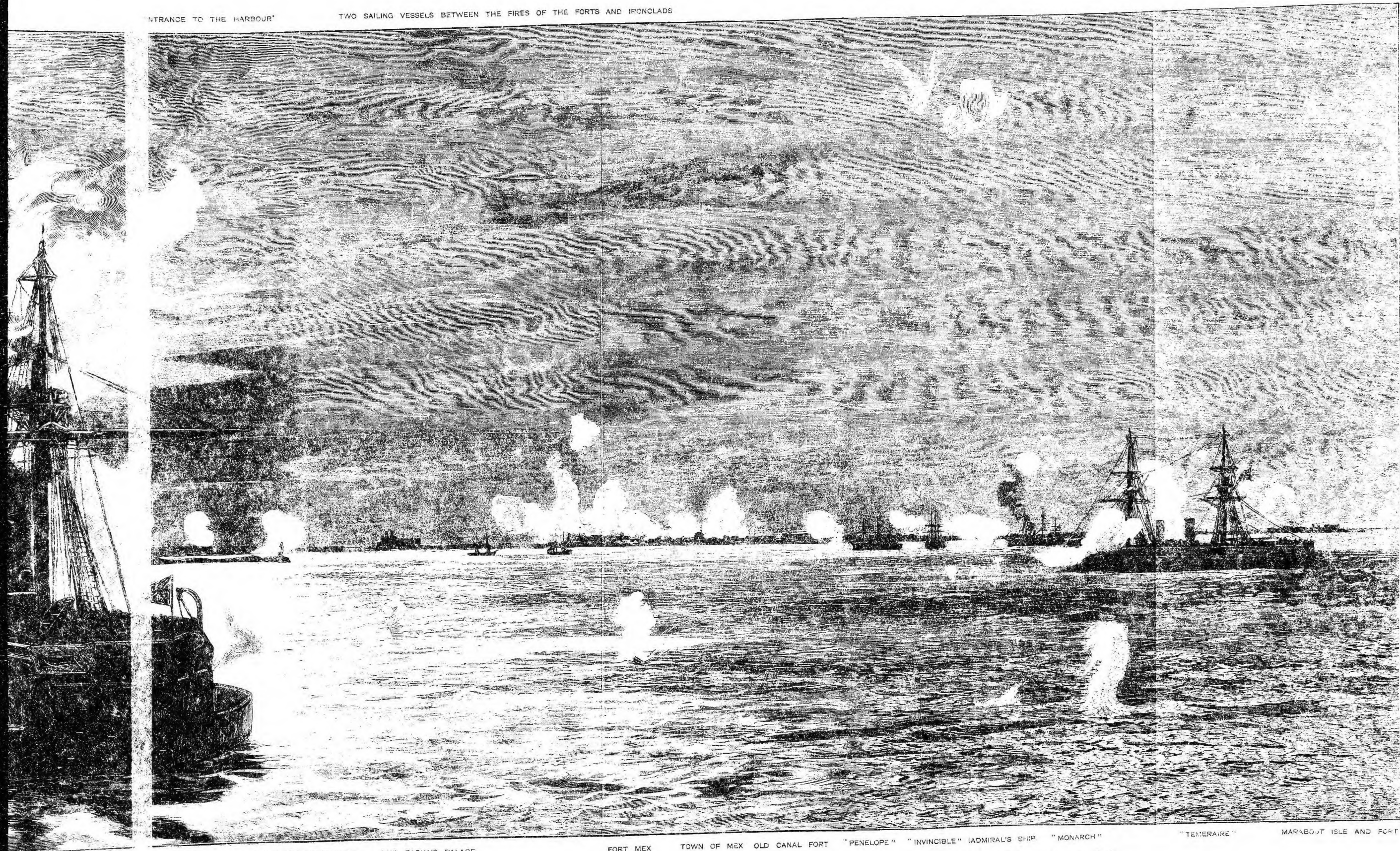
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